

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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EDUCATION AND TELEVISION

WITH the opening of the network connecting fourteen major cities from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, a new era in television has begun. It is estimated that five million persons view telecasts regularly and that unusual events, such as the inaugural ceremonies, are witnessed by at least ten million persons. A coast to coast hookup is expected to be in operation in the next year or two. There is no question that television is here to stay.

When radio was in its infancy, the few stations on the air operated at a loss. Broadcasters were looking eagerly for programs. They were not too particular about the quality of the program, but they were concerned with its cost. The radio audience was not critical; they listened to the programs because radio was a new thrill. Educators were slow to see that here was a new medium of communication with great educational potentialities. Instead of seizing the opportunity to

co-operate with the broadcasting studio in formulating and presenting programs with intellectual and cultural values, educators remained on the side lines. Everyone knows what happened. Radio was developed as a medium of advertising. Entertainment, as a means of attracting people to listen to the commercials, became the chief goal of the radio program.

It is probably impossible now to do much about the quality of radio broadcasting. Years of listening to soap operas, "give-away shows," etc., have conditioned listeners to expect the fare they are getting. From the quality of the telecasts now on the air, it is apparent that television is likely to follow the same pattern of development as radio. There is, however, still some chance for the educator to help determine the course that the new medium will follow. Television is operating at a loss, and broadcasting stations are again eager for low-cost programs.

There are some indications that educators are alive to the opportunities now presented. An article in the December issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan* by Philip Lewis, an instructor in the South Shore High School of Chicago, Illinois, points the way. Lewis suggests that the following are among the things which educators may do:

1. Plan programs in co-operation with the local TV producer. The present is an excellent time for this type of experimentation since sufficient sponsors have not yet taken up all of the air time available, especially during the school hours. Then too, this constitutes "public service," and all stations try to devote some of their transmissions to this end. . . .

3. Develop techniques for the presentation of educational programs which avoid amateurishness. For example, settings in the classroom have been found to arouse resentment in the viewer.

4. Conduct experiments to learn in which areas television may make the best contributions. Perhaps a change in specific methodology for certain subjects may be necessary.

5. Set up situations and controls to determine the retentivity of material taught via TV, as compared to other means, and to discover the proper areas of utilization of the new medium.

6. Determine the extent and effects of such causative factors as eye fatigue, viewing angles with direct-view vs. projection receivers, contrast and brilliancy, and attention spans of the various age groups.

7. Advocate and support the formation of a national commission on the educational aspects of television, the objectives of this group to be aimed at setting up standards, specifications, and goals for school use, and to distribute information to the profession concerning the sociological, psychological, technical, managerial, and artistic characteristics of video. . . .

9. Assemble all the material written on educational TV and publish it, as well as a periodic index to facilitate research and enlightenment.

The article also includes a description of the ways in which television has been used in schools and ways in which it could be adapted to do better some of the tasks now performed in the schools.

Experiments with television are already under way in some school systems. The most comprehensive program which has come to the attention of the writer is that of Philadelphia. In an article in *School Management* for December, 1948, Martha A. Gable, of the Philadelphia public schools, describes what they are doing:

It is true that television receivers in the classrooms and daytime programs on a majority of stations are still somewhat in the future. But right now it is possible and desirable for schools to produce telecasts for public-relations purposes. Children in action—featuring school activities with sparkle, humor, and childish appeal—are good for television and good for the schools. There is great need for more public-relations programs which tell the story of the schools regularly, systematically, effectively. And where school telecasts occur in the late afternoon and are planned for both children and adults, the way is paved for in-school telecasts later on, both from the standpoint of receiving and production.

The day is coming when children will see in school such events as the opening of Congress, the discussions of the United Nations meetings, and great news events of the day. . . .

Television is in its infancy. The experts agree that nobody knows all the answers.

This offers teachers and pupils an excellent opportunity to learn while everyone else in the industry is learning. Also, commercial advertising does not yet pay for television, as is the case in radio, although rapid strides are being made in this direction. At the moment, station directors are looking for programs which can be produced inexpensively and which have general appeal. . . .

Many school activities lend themselves to television. In Philadelphia, we have experimented with nearly every possibility. . . . Programs have included kindergarten children to Seniors, vocational students, veterans, parents. We have tried studio programs, remote telecasts, and films. Last year we presented four telecasts a week, planned and produced by school personnel. Here are some of them.

"Let's Make Music" demonstrated the schools' approach to music at the various levels—elementary, junior, and senior high school. Little ones beat out rhythms on triangles, drums, tambourines. Older children played flutes and harmonicas. Choral singing, instrumental groups, dancing were featured. The youngster who constructed her own musical instrument from a series of glasses containing various quantities of liquid showed how she built up her scale, and then played a tune. One school demonstrated how it built up its own orchestra to accompany its group singing. Zithers, flutes, accordions, drums were included, and each child explained his part and his instrument. In other words, these telecasts were not merely renditions by the talented, but clearly demonstrated the schools' program of music for all.

"Careers in Science" was presented by secondary-school pupils. They explained various scientific principles with amazing arrays of equipment and materials. Topics such as "Why Airplanes Fly," "The Making of Synthetic Rubber," "Philadelphia Water," "Refrigeration" were included. During the last five minutes of each program, students interview an outstanding expert in an indus-

trial field related to the subject for the evening.

"Young Philadelphia Presents" ran the gamut of school activities. Agriculture, the teaching of reading, arithmetic, nutrition, sewing, dramatics, round-table discussions, art, history, social studies, Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts, health examinations provided interesting material.

"Formula for Champions" featured the schools' program for fitness, health, and good posture. Outstanding athletes, dancers, gymnasts served as the inspirational goals for the pupils.

Six fifteen-minute telecasts a week are presented during the late afternoon this season. Since new report cards have been issued for elementary schools, one of these programs will be devoted to having a parent, a teacher, a superintendent, and a child discuss the report brought home by the youngster.

The article concludes with suggestions for improving the techniques of telecasting.

EDUCATION FOR ALL YOUTH?

TEEN-AGERS AT WORK," an article by Elizabeth S. Johnson, appearing in the October, 1948, issue of the *Child* (published by the United States Children's Bureau), opens with the following paragraph:

We in the United States like to think that practically all our teen-agers are preparing for full and successful lives by carrying their formal education at least through high school, and that many go on to college, or to vocational or technical schools, according to their individual interests and abilities. We know that many youngsters work during vacation or outside school hours, and we easily assume that they acquire useful experience in this way. We are reluctant, however,

to admit that any large number of children are leaving school and entering full-time employment without the benefit of a full high-school course and to realize that they face the competition of occupational life seriously handicapped, vocationally or otherwise.

To test the truth of this statement, this writer asked several acquaintances: "What per cent of pupils of the high-school age do you think are in school?" The answers ranged from 85 to 95 per cent. Most of the respondents volunteered the information that state laws required the attendance of pupils in school during these years. They were astounded to learn that a United States Census estimate of October, 1947, indicated that eight million boys and girls of the age group fourteen through nineteen were in school, while roughly five million were out of school. In other words, only about 60 per cent of boys and girls of high-school age are actually in school. This is a matter of concern, not only to educators, but to everyone who believes that the best defense of a democracy against the encroachment of foreign ideologies is an educated citizenry.

Educators are naturally interested in the reasons why so many students do not remain in school. A recent study of "Why Young People Leave School" has been made by Elizabeth S. Johnson and Caroline E. Legg, of the Child Labor Branch, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, United States Department of Labor, and published in the November number of the *Bulletin of the National As-*

sociation of Secondary-School Principals. The purpose of this investigation is shown in the following excerpt:

To make the most rewarding use of the resources of the schools is a matter of prime importance to all school personnel. Our educational theory is that the public-school system, extending through high school, is open to all and serves all. Yet at least half of the children who enter the fifth grade drop out before completing high school. These drop-outs are not statistics, but children. Study of the motives that led them to leave school is worth while to point out ways in which their potentialities may be better developed. It was with the idea of viewing this and other problems in a small but representative area that the staff of the United States Department of Labor, in the spring of 1947, interviewed a sample of young people in Louisville, Kentucky—524 boys and girls out of school and in the labor market, of whom 440 had not completed high school.

The major purpose of this study was to obtain up-to-date information on youth-employment problems sufficiently representative so that it would be suggestive of needs in many communities. It is hoped that school administrators, counselors, placement workers, and other officials as well as community youth agencies will find the information it provides useful in promoting understanding of the problems and conditions of young people. The questions asked these young people were focused on their educational background, their reasons for leaving school, their work experiences, their ambitions, and their problems in finding satisfying work careers.

In view of the fact that 42 per cent of the young people leaving school gave as their reason, "dissatisfaction with the school," the study offers a challenge to educators to find ways to stop much of this early school leaving,

SCIENCE IN RUSSIA

FOR some time we have been reading in the newspapers about the purge of Russian scientists. Long-accepted theories of science have been denounced because they do not follow Marx-Lenin-Stalin reasoning. This has been accompanied by a wholesale purge of scientists in many fields. Since the Russians in the past have been very active in the support of science, this sudden attack upon science has been puzzling to the Western world.

A plausible explanation of what is happening in Russian is given in the *U.S. News and World Report* of January 14, 1949. This explanation, in part, is as follows:

Moscow pressure for quick results in almost every field of science lies behind much of the purge now going on. Russia needs to grow more food, develop new areas, build up industries, combat diseases that in some cases are epidemic, needs to make an atomic bomb. Apparently scientific theories long accepted by the rest of the world are too slow for Russia's rulers. So up-and-coming Russian scientists who advance new theories, or who promise better application of old theories for quick results, are getting approval to go ahead. Their more conservative colleagues are being cast aside. . . .

Behind the purge now going on is a new concept by Russia's rulers of the uses of scientists. For years "pure" science was in the highest repute in Communist Russia. Nothing was too good for the men of science. The many Russians who won fame throughout the world for their work in "pure" science were given a free hand and ample funds by the Soviet government.

That is being changed now. The Kremlin, needing things done, is interested in applied

science. Men who say they can do things on the practical side are to get their chance. If they fail, chances are they will be kicked out, along with the theorists, and others given a chance to show what they can do. Concrete results, not abstract terminology, are what the rulers of Russia demand from science.

What it means is that Russia is gambling that politicians can run Soviet science better than scientists can. As Western scientists see it, this gamble marks the beginning of the end of Soviet science. They say Russian students will not be free to follow tested methods in research, cannot criticize one another freely and openly. Instead, they have to work with one eye on Stalin and can never be quite sure they are following the party line.

In this atmosphere, past experience shows, science tends to dry up. What the drying-up can mean to industry, agriculture and defense is obvious. But it is this drying-up process—the end of contact with international research—that is getting a start inside Russia now.

INSTRUCTION FOR THE CONSUMER

JUST what should be done to educate the consumer has been a matter of discussion for some time. Some people have advocated special courses for this purpose. The committee which prepared the report, *Science Education in American Schools*, for the Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, recommended that consumer-education material be integrated with the regular courses of the science sequence and with other courses in the program of studies.

Otis Lipstreu, in the article, "Experts Look at Consumer Education in the Secondary School," which ap-

pears in later pages of this issue of the *School Review*, again finds agreement that consumer education should be a part of general education but disagreement as to the way it should be handled.

Consumer education has been the subject of study by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for some time. Their latest publication in a series on the subject is *Your Life in the Country*. A news report of the National Education Association describes this book as follows:

Your Life in the Country is the newest in a series of publications prepared by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a department of the National Education Association.

Written by Dr. Effie G. Bathurst of the Office of Education, the 400-page book is presented as both a "story and study" of the consumer problems which confront a rural family. Through the experiences of one family dealing with consumer problems, it illustrates the life and problems of rural young people. Howard A. Dawson, director of the N.E.A. Division of Rural Service, commented on the new publication:

"Here is a very readable, instructive, and stimulating book that should be used in every high school in America that has rural youth among its students. Those schools include the city schools that have pupils from surrounding villages and farm areas.

"The book does five things admirably well: It shows (1) how rural living is an enjoyable way of living; (2) how rural resources can be used to create high standards of living; (3) how to make rural communities desirable places in which to live; (4) how farming can be made to pay and rural incomes

made more adequate; and (5) how wise use can be made of income and other resources.

"This book will be found useful as first-hand curriculum material in courses in consumer education and social sciences; as necessary reading material in school libraries; and as source material for discussion groups, 4-H clubs, Future Farmers, Future Homemakers, and other high-school clubs."

Your Life in the Country includes extensive listings of U.S. Department of Agriculture bulletins and other inexpensive publications related to farm life. Thomas H. Briggs is the director of the Consumer Education Study, which was initiated in 1942. *Your Life in the Country* was published for the Consumer Education Study by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York City.

INTEGRATING THE USE OF INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

IN TIMES past, learning experiences in school were largely those connected with some type of formal textbook instruction. Even today the textbook occupies a predominant place in the classroom. In recent years, however, there has been an ever increasing flow of teaching aids, particularly in the field of audio-visual materials. Too often, however, these materials have been thought of as supplementary aids rather than as learning activities which should be synthesized with other learning experiences.

The problem of handling these materials so that they may become an integral part of the curriculum has recently been studied in the Portland (Oregon) public schools. An article by Amo DeBernardis, "Portland's Instructional Materials Center," ap-

pearing in the *Educational Screen* for January, 1949, describes what one school system has done to bring this about. The excerpts which follow outline the procedures and report the results which have been attained:

The period since World War II has seen many schools become concerned over these new instructional aids and the proper methods of using them. As might be expected, the direction which this concern has taken varies considerably throughout the country. In most instances the department organized to handle the newer aids has been "set up" independently of existing facilities for library and textbooks. Radio, motion pictures, filmstrips, recordings, and the like have been looked upon as something distinctly different from the "traditional tools" such as books and blackboards, and therefore required a separate department to handle them. Portland was no exception. Over a period of years departments of radio, textbooks, audiovisual, and professional library have been developed here, as in most other places.

No criticism need be leveled at the operation and service that these separate units performed. What each one was set up to do, it did with enthusiasm, diligence, and for the most part, complete disregard for all other instructional-aid departments. But gradually, as those concerned with curriculum development and the improvement of instruction came to realize that all aids are an integral part of one teaching process, it became apparent that these various departments might function more effectively if they were integrated into one operational unit. The result was the creation of an Instructional Materials Center. The main idea back of this unification is to provide for the Portland teachers one resource center from which they can obtain any and all teaching aids that fit their instructional needs, and also receive professional help in their use.

The articles also includes tables showing the various material areas which make up the center and the types of services which it renders. The values of the center are summarized as follows:

It is much too early to draw any definite conclusions as to the value of the center. Even on the basis of limited present experience, however, the unified center seems to have many advantages. Here are a few:

1. It minimizes the tendency to look upon certain instructional aids as entirely unique and therefore unrelated to the general process of education.
2. It provides better co-ordination of service functions of purchase, distribution, and maintenance.
3. It has elicited more co-ordinated effort on the part of staff in the in-service growth of teachers.
4. It makes for greater economy, both in use of materials and in effort by staff and the classroom teacher.
5. It has provided more effective co-ordination of aids within each school.
6. It has made possible a more efficient inventory.
7. It has made possible a better implementation of the curriculum.

OPPOSITION TO THE COMICS

A REPORT prepared for the United States Conference of Mayors regarding the agitation against so-called "comic books" is of interest to all educators and persons working with children:

The product of a publishing industry grossing an approximate \$72,000,000 annually from so-called "comic" books has suddenly become the subject of widespread

scrutiny by worried parents, church and civic groups, and a headache for city governments as a result of increasing and persistent demands to do something about it.

The old-fashioned funnies, such as the "Katzenjammer Kids" and "Mutt and Jeff," have spawned some offspring that aren't so funny. Emphasis on murder, mayhem, sex, and glorification of crime constitute the "new look" in comics for a large segment of this particular publishing industry. This trend in "comics" is anything but beneficial to the youngsters of America.

At the present time there are 35 publishers printing and distributing about 300 "comic" books (good and bad) with an approximate annual circulation of 720,000,000 copies. That they are popular is attested to by the fact that "the first survey of comics magazine readership, recently undertaken in a typical American city (Dayton, Ohio), shows that in the age group 8-14, 96.5 per cent of boys and 94.7 per cent of girls read comic books.

Municipal reaction to demands for some kind of control has varied. A majority of the cities have sought the co-operation of wholesalers and dealers in some plan of voluntary control or self-censorship. Others have felt that the problem rests primarily in the home. Ordinances and resolutions setting up official censorship committees or imposing legal controls have been adopted or are pending in a number of cities.

The publishers' answer to all this has been the establishment of the Association of Comics Magazine publishers to do a job of self-policing under a code adopted by its membership.

NOTE: The code is essentially negative, and includes such statements as: "(1) Sexy, wanton comics should not be published. No drawing should show a female indecently or unduly exposed, and in no event more nude than a bathing suit commonly worn in the U.S.A. (2) Crime should not be presented in such a way as to throw sympathy against

law and justice. . . (3) No scenes of sadistic torture should be shown. (4) Vulgar and obscene language should never be used."

Less than 13 of the 35 publishers have agreed to abide by the above code. The attitude of one firm was expressed by a spokesman who "recently distinguished himself by telling *Time* magazine that there are more morons than people in the United States, and his outfit intended catering to their trade."

About 50 cities have taken action of one kind or another to ban the sale of objectionable comic books.

Los Angeles County, Tacoma, and Terre Haute are the first localities during the current flurry of action on comics to pass ordinances to put their bans into effect. Los Angeles County's ordinance prohibits sale of comic books which deal with murder, burglary, kidnapping, arson, or assault with a deadly weapon.

IN PAPER COVERS

Education for workers in health Last year when President Truman proposed a program for meeting the health and medical needs

of our citizens, it was denounced in many quarters as a type of "socialized medicine." The bill did not pass Congress, but President Truman has announced that he will press for this legislation in the very near future. One of the arguments against its passage has been the contention of certain groups of organized medicine that health and medical facilities in this country, if not entirely adequate, are nearly so and can be made adequate with little change in present practice.

Some light on the question of the adequacy of our health services is pre-

sented by the Temporary Commission on Need for a State University of the State of New York. The Commission has carried on an extensive survey of the adequacy of existing health agencies and of institutions for the training of health personnel in New York State. Their findings, presented in a bulletin entitled *Education for the Health Services*, are significant in view of the fact that cultural and economic standards in New York are as high as any in the country. In general, the findings show that there are many unmet needs in the area of health services supplied to the citizens and in the area of training sufficient personnel to meet these needs.

The report, prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of George St. J. Perrott, chief of the Division of Public Health Methods of the United States Public Health Service, may be obtained from the Bureau of Publications, State Education Department, Albany, New York, for forty cents a copy.

Handbook in science High-school teachers of science who are called upon to answer all sorts of questions about programs, college work, vocational opportunities, and kindred matters will welcome the publication of a new book, *Student's Handbook of Science* by Bernard Udane and Herman W. Gillary, of the science department of the Forest Hills High School, New York City (New York 10: Frederick Ungar Pub-

lishing Co. \$0.75). The book has been planned especially for the student of high school and junior high school. Its purpose is indicated by the introductory "Word to the Reader from the Authors":

This handbook, as you will see, is different from the usual type of book that you get in school. Its chief purpose is *not* to teach you the basic principles of any one science, such as biology, physics, or chemistry, but rather to show you how to develop your science interests and how to put them to use.

We have had many young people like yourself in our classes who have indicated by their countless questions that they needed help, not necessarily with subject matter, but with all sorts of problems relating to their work in science. Unfortunately, insufficient time has always made it impossible for us to discuss these problems adequately in the classroom. We have prepared this *Handbook* in an effort to answer all these questions and in the hope of anticipating others which you may have in mind.

You will find chapters which deal with very specific student problems, such as choosing a career, qualifying for a scholarship, starting a science hobby, preparing a written or oral report, keeping a good science notebook, and many others. Blank forms have been provided to enable you to record useful information concerning your individual interests, making the book a personal guide for your own specific activities. You will find the Appendix a handy reference for many fundamental facts of use to all science students.

This *Handbook* is not a one-semester book. It was designed to be of value throughout your entire school career and for many years thereafter. Enjoy your science while you are learning it, expand the range of your science hobbies. Use the information in this book as suggested and your powers as a young scientist will grow.

High-school science clubs It is a rare high school that does not have a science club. Many schools have recognized the value of the science club as an important supplement to the regular classroom teaching and have assigned a definite time for it in the weekly schedule. Unfortunately, however, the club meeting is often not successful. Either it becomes another teacher-dominated activity, or it is taken over by a few students who use it to "show off" before their fellows. This failure to achieve worth-while educational objectives can often be traced to the teacher's lack of training for sponsoring an activity of this type. Few teachers' colleges or universities provide teachers with specific training.

A recent bulletin, *Sponsoring the Science Club*, by George Greisen Mallinson, assistant professor of the teaching of science at Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, has been published by that institution as Number 8 in its series of "Educational Service Publications." The booklet, which sells for fifteen cents, provides information especially valuable for beginning teachers but of value also for any teacher sponsoring a science club. The bulletin has a four-fold purpose:

1. To list the various objectives for which science clubs may be organized.
2. To suggest methods of organization for science clubs in order to assure that the objectives will be met.
3. To suggest various types of science clubs, and activities which may be undertaken by these clubs.

4. To present various references, periodicals, and source materials which may be of value for the club member and club sponsor.

Science in war-torn countries

Teachers of general science will be interested in a publication by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, *Suggestions for Science Teachers in Devastated Countries*. It is being distributed free by UNESCO to schools in Greece, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Italy, China, and the Philippines. The booklet is described in a recent press release of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization:

Its author is J. P. Stephenson, science master at City of London School and member of the Royal Society Committee for Co-operation with UNESCO. He first explains how science-teaching can be commenced without the use of apparatus and then shows how equipment for experiments in astronomy, meteorology, measurement, heat, light, magnetism, electricity, chemistry, and biology can be improvised from materials such as wood, glass-tube, wire, nails, bottles, and other household articles.

The booklet also touches on the use of visual aids in science-teaching and includes a description of recent laboratory materials, such as plastics and alloys, as well as a section on laboratory receipts, charts, and logarithm tables. Suggestions are made clear by well-drawn diagrams.

"These improvisations should not be thought of as makeshifts," the author says in a foreword. "They, and the exercise of constructing them, are in the best tradition of science and science-teaching. All the great

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scientists have used such apparatus, and many have made their greatest discoveries in this way."

Conserving our natural resources For many years we have been reading about our dwindling natural resources. Some attempt has been made to introduce conservation education in our schools. On the whole, however, the effort has not been a success because conservation of natural resources is only one part of a much more complex problem. The resources of a region include not only natural resources but human and social resources as well. What is needed is a survey of the entire resources of a region plus an educational program designed to raise the level of living in the region.

The development of the entire resources of a region for natural and cultural betterment has been handicapped because of the lack of scientific principles underlying resource development. A recent study, sponsored by the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education of the American Council on Education and financed by the General Education Board, has attempted to discover these principles and to show how they may be actually applied in resource development. The report, *Scientists Look at Resources*, has been published as a Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky (Vol. XX, No. 4, \$0.50). The accomplishments of the group are summarized in the following

statement by Professor R. H. Eckelberry, originally published in the *Journal of Higher Education* and reprinted as the Introduction to the conference report:

The movement which the conference represented is noteworthy for several reasons. In the first place, it represents an attempt to focus educational programs at the various levels directly on improving the quality of living, rather than on subject-matter more or less remote from the actual concerns and needs of the man in the street.

In the second place, the program represents an emphasis on understanding and using the resources of one's own region. Such an emphasis narrowly interpreted and improperly used could be harmful. An educational program which dealt only with physical or "natural" resources and which never looked beyond its own region would be highly defective. But the leaders of this movement in the South are not guilty of such errors: they recognize not only minerals, soil, and forests, but also libraries, local government agencies, and power plants, as resources for the improvement of living. Moreover they would be the first to say that, while one's own neighborhood furnishes a natural and desirable starting-place for an educational program, the program should lead out into the world at large.

The movement is noteworthy in the third place because it is co-operative in the best sense. Colleges, universities, state departments of education, citizens' groups, and institutional and interstate committees of many kinds are working in a common cause. Their efforts are being co-ordinated by the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education.

Thus the South is setting a fine example of using education in the solution of its problems of living. Would that all regions in the country were doing as much.

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

WHO'S WHO FOR MARCH

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago. HERBERT A. THELEN, associate professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago, discusses the subject of group dynamics in instruction and its implications for planning and administering instruction, the in-service training of teachers, and programs of community development. THOMAS E. CHRISTENSEN, director of guidance in the public schools of Worcester, Massachusetts, points out the responsibilities of the high-school principal in the school's program of guidance. OTIS LIPSTREU, assistant professor of business management at the University of Colorado, reports the results of an inquiry regarding the most effective means of introducing and organizing a consumer-training program in the public schools. GEORGE E. PROBST, executive secretary of the Radio Office and instructor in the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago, considers the topic of lib-

eral education in the social-science class discussion. KATHARINE DRESDEN, lecturer and assistant in education at Stanford University, explains how current materials may be used in a work-experience program. The selected references on the various subject fields have been prepared by the following persons: HOMER J. SMITH, professor of industrial education at the University of Minnesota; NAOMI KELLER, teacher of home economics in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago; EDWIN A. SWANSON, of the San Jose State College, San Jose, California; V. HOWARD TALLEY, assistant professor of music at the University of Chicago; ROBERT D. ERICKSON, teacher in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago; and D. K. BRACE, chairman of the Department of Physical and Health Education at the University of Texas.

Reviewers of books

GEORGE W. BROWN, assistant principal of Tolleston School, Gary, Indiana. ROBERT F. PECK, instructor in human development at the University of Chicago.

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GROUP DYNAMICS IN INSTRUCTION: PRINCIPLE OF LEAST GROUP SIZE¹

HERBERT A. THELEN

University of Chicago



THE fact that social and group factors exert significant influence on school achievement and on the development of understanding by individual students must be taken into account in the planning and administration of instruction, in-service training of teachers, and general programs of community development. The work of Jennings, Tryon, and Bonney on sociometrics; of Barker on motivation and molar behavior; of Lippitt and White on climate; of Redl and Bettelheim on characteristics of therapeutic groups; of the Yale group on frustration and aggression; of Henry on group-process diagnosis via projective tests; of Davis on social-class and acculturation problems in the school—studies such as these provide convincing evidence that teaching can no longer be guided by ideas limited substantially to the unit organization of content, pleas for friendly interpersonal relations, descriptions of “desirable” personality traits of teachers,

¹For stimulation and opportunity to work out this formulation I am indebted to my Theory of Instruction class, consisting of Miss Mary Herzman.

and a handful of “teaching methods.” Educators must see the classroom for what it is—an extremely complex, shifting web of interpersonal relations describable in terms of such dimensions as conflict, reinforcement, contagion, resistance, goal-direction, frustration, efficiency, expectancy, productivity, and the like.

To the administrator or teacher who is faced with the growing recognition of the importance of these factors and who is also bewildered by their large number, their subtle ramifications, and, in many cases, the vagueness with which they are defined, the problem of improving instruction is disconcertingly large. This article attempts to interpret the heterogeneous mass of material in terms of a few basic principles stated in such a way that their meanings can be explored in practice. We propose, then, to explore a body of hypotheses and assumptions which, taken together, may constitute a rationale for the organization of major social factors in instruction. This associated body of ideas is called “the principle of least group size.”

SELF-DIRECTIVE PARTICIPATION

The activeness of participation in any social institution ranges from daydreaming to directive leadership and group-integrating behaviors. Active participation is not necessarily confined to talking and moving the hands. The "doing" in the phrase "learning by doing" does not have to be noisy or even overt, particularly if the objective is reflective thinking. On the other hand, there is a difference between vicarious and firsthand self-directive experience, and the difference may be important. If one accepts the postulate of an experimental point of view (that one learns by assessing the situation, planning strategy, carrying it out, and appraising the consequences thereof, as a means to developing a more realistic world picture and to practicing the skills required for successful living in this world), then we would submit that vicarious participation does not usually have these dimensions of self-initiation, self-direction, and self-evaluation. Appreciating and criticizing someone else's position and reasoning and emotional self-expression, however fully done, are at best, indirect and uncertain pathways to skill in guiding one's own behavior. Furthermore, they are pathways with which we can no longer be satisfied in view of the social crisis of our times.

Two approaches to the general problem of increasing educativeness of participation seem relevant. First, we can attempt to increase the emotional involvement and tempo of thinking

of the student, without increasing the possibility of self-directive activity. An example of this approach would be to attempt to find the characteristics of "meaningful" problems, of the nature of motivation, of the workings of acculturation and conflict in the classroom. These studies and concepts may lead to greater psychological impact of class work. Second, we can try to increase the activity of the student's participation—in effect, to augment his functional role of "leadership" rather than of "followership," to increase his self-direction rather than his acquiescence, to help him picture himself as a responsible citizen rather than as an amused audience. It would be assumed that problems become more meaningful, motivation greater, and, in general, learning more effective as the student's responsibility and his opportunity to discharge this responsibility through self-direction increase. Changing the role is one way to bring about these increases. How may this be done?

If a class of thirty students meets for an hour as a single group, the average time available for each student's active initiation of activities for himself and others is two minutes—two minutes in which he can experiment through active interaction with others for the purpose of seeing what response will be elicited from his peers who represent society to him. On the other hand, if a class of thirty is seen as a collection of thirty individuals who are not working together at all, each student is presumably on his own

for the full hour. He is self-initiating to the extent that he does anything (though, of course, failure to know or to accept what the teacher wants may lead him to initiate activities which are bothersome). As an isolated individual, however, he is cut off from interaction with the other students, and his field of experimentation is limited to verbal ideas and material objects. He can test no social consequences of any of his hypotheses. What is needed then, is some way to maximize the self-initiated participation time of each student without sacrificing the opportunity for revealing social interaction with a representative range of personality and skill characteristics of others.

We must look for principles to help us divide the class into small groups. If the number of small groups is n , the average self-directive participation time of the student (which we are assuming is a factor to be maximized in so far as possible) becomes n times as great as it is when the class meets as a committee of the whole. The size and composition of the groups have to be chosen carefully, so that all essential interactive possibilities for the student's stimulation, action, assessment, and growth are retained. Moreover, the groups have to be picked in such a way that they can make progress toward the goal of the day's work without having to depend on the teacher for constant guidance and direction. As an aid to implementing these criteria, we begin by identifying an aspect of behavior which is sufficiently

overt that it can be seen and dealt with and yet is sufficiently related to goal-seeking and personality that criteria for its satisfactoriness, from the standpoint both of the student and of the teacher as a representative of society, can be set up. The aspect of behavior which seems to us to meet these requirements is the aspect which we call "skill." The cliché, "Start with the class where it is," is one way of pressing the point of view that it is useful to regard the processes of learning as fundamentally the processes of increasing the efficiency and productivity of skills which are, to some extent, already present (i.e., for which some readiness has developed).

ACHIEVEMENT AND SOCIALIZATION SKILLS

Fundamentally a group of people who are united in a common endeavor must be able to meet two kinds of skill requirements. First, there must be sufficient skill to practice and carry out the jobs required for achievement. Second, there must be social skills sufficient for the efforts of all individuals to be co-ordinated and complementary to one another rather than competitive and obstructing. The first type of skill requirement can be described from analysis of the problem or the common endeavor which brought the group together. Thus, there is need to get necessary information. There is need to assess initial conditions which are to be improved. There is need to suggest plausible methods of solving the problem. There

is need to evaluate the extent to which a given proposed strategy is successful and, if it is unsuccessful, to modify it before the failure has become a significant blocking factor. There is also need to practice distinct, separate, individual skills and to verbalize about them. In effect, there is need to develop basic tools at a level sufficiently functional to operate under a wide variety of conditions. We shall call such skills the *achievement skills*.

Achievement skills are practiced in a social milieu. In this milieu, certain processes operate and must be facilitated. Whether the achievement skills of individuals can be integrated into effective group progress—or even whether individual skills will have opportunity for use—will be determined by social-group processes. For example, adequate communication must be established; agreement must be reached concerning value systems; control must be exercised in the case of co-operative efforts, particularly in defining the limits of individual efforts; skills must be used by individuals to avoid frustrations which, otherwise, would block the group; group members must be able to distribute satisfactions; and the group must develop an expectancy of who will do what, so that it can predict consequences of individual behaviors.

The facilitation of those processes requires the exercise of a wide variety of what we might call *socialization skills*. These include skills such as resolving conflict through the integration of various points of view in a more basic

concept; summarizing the position of the group at intervals, so that the problems faced can be redefined; assessing and interpreting the limits of action possible to the group, so that solutions will be realistic; deciding on a level of aspiration which is reasonable and, along with it, determining the criteria by which success shall be judged; giving each person a sense of freedom sufficiently great that whatever he has of value to contribute can be given freely; and the like.

The quality of the participation, then, will depend on the conditions under which it occurs. We suggest that these conditions are describable as the pattern of skills which the group can bring to bear on its joint activities. In this pattern of skills there must be represented all the major skills required to facilitate the group processes mentioned above. Since no one individual, not even the teacher, can demonstrate all these skills adequately, it is probable that a number of persons should work together. The number of individuals required depends on the actual skills that analysis of the objectives and the social situation shows must be present to avoid frustration and make progress possible. In general, the principle would seem to be: *the size of group should be the smallest group in which it is possible to have represented at a functional level all the socialization and achievement skills required for the particular learning activity at hand.*

If the group is larger than is needed to fulfil these conditions, there will be

duplication of skills, with the result that there will be less need for individuals to assume their full responsibility to the group; their acts will have less significance and their motivation will, therefore, be hindered. Moreover, each person will have less opportunity than he might otherwise have for experimental interaction leading to desirable learning; that is, he will have an unnecessarily limited opportunity for firsthand interactive participation. If the group is smaller than is needed to fulfil the conditions described, there will be certain gaps and lack of competency, with frustration and loss of motivation.

APPLYING THE PRINCIPLE OF LEAST GROUP SIZE

How can this principle be implemented? It is clear that the desired groupings would never be formed by counting off in fours or using some random procedure of that sort. Rather, there must be diagnosis of individual needs and abilities, followed by assignment of students to groups in such a way that each group contains the necessary range of skills with a minimum of duplication in different individuals. Great strides have been made in diagnostic testing of some achievement skills, particularly in areas such as interpretation of data, development of foreign-language vocabulary, development of basic tool skills in arithmetic and English, planning of experiments, and the like. In these areas, at least, it is possible to assess fairly readily some of the par-

ticular strengths and weaknesses of students. It is more difficult to gain evidence about the skills of socialization or group-process facilitation, for these can be diagnosed only in a situation in which the students are given sufficient responsibility and freedom to show where their social capabilities lie. At the present time the best wisdom for diagnosis appears to be either to set up special class activities, such as functioning without the teacher, in which the students have complete control (since when they are broken up into small subgroups, the students will have virtually complete control of the subgroup) or to proceed by trial and error, formulating the subgroup to insure the necessary range of achievement skills and then shifting personnel about from group to group as is required to get each group functioning effectively as a social instrument.

The systematic analysis of skill requirements of various kinds of learning tasks is yet to be made. At the present stage of our understanding, we may guess that: for a variety of types of skill practice in which the major objective is essentially to condition the student to attach certain symbols to certain objects, the most appropriate size for the learning group is probably two persons; for such a task as creative thinking for the purpose of planning an experiment (in which a wide range of social skills is required to keep the problem in front of the group and to build on all the suggestions offered and to have a suf-

ficient range of ideas to begin with), a somewhat larger group, perhaps from four to eight, may be found necessary. The size depends, of course, on the resources in the particular group in the particular school and culture under consideration. For such things as assessing the extent to which the class is "ready" for various types of activity, the necessary group might well include the entire class.

PROBLEMS IN ADMINISTERING THE PRINCIPLE

The outline presented above amounts to a plan on paper. The hypothesis appears to be promising because it calls for maximizing the opportunity for individual learning through intelligent management of the group milieu. The success of the plan, however, depends on adequate recognition and solution of a number of psychological problems, arising from differences in perceptions and in status needs of the various students and the teacher. Let us see, then, what problems experience shows are likely to arise in connection with the implementing of this plan. Many teachers have used subgroups in the past—that part of this proposal is not new. Let us examine some of the commonly stated difficulties in the use of subgroups, and then see to what extent the formulation presented here can lead to feasible and psychologically sound solutions to these problems.

Problem 1. Lack of direction in the subgroup.—Under the usual conditions of instruction, it is fairly often found

that, when a class is divided into subgroups, the subgroups tend to be bored, to be aggressive and otherwise unable to work effectively. One reason for these conditions often is that the students do not know specifically what they are to do, either because the task is not sufficiently defined or because (even if the goals are clear) the processes for reaching them are not. In the latter case the problem is simply too tough for the students to solve with their present skills and insights. In the class discussion, which should include the teacher, the teacher's comments have a goal-directing quality. The things that he seizes on for comment, the kinds of alternatives that he recognizes, the questions that he raises—all tend to set the specific goals for the situation and enable the students to see what kinds of comments and behaviors on their parts are appropriate and valued.

It is suggested, then, that either we must essentially reproduce the condition of the teacher's being in each group or we must find ways in which the group can obtain from itself the values usually invested in the teacher's presence. Three possible procedures can be recognized. First, one member of the group may act as a surrogate teacher, responsible for setting the goals of the group at each moment. This proposal is rejected because it sanctions a type of dependence on authority which will block not only group growth but individual initiation of personally meaningful activities. Second, the task can be

outlined and clearly defined in advance so that the group, in effect, follows specific instructions drawn up by the class through discussion. This kind of procedure is applicable, for example, to drill activities. It implies that learning can be divided into relatively short homogeneous activities which can be guided by the same instructions from beginning to end. In the third procedure the group can be led to recognize that the setting of its own goal from moment to moment is a major problem of its own operation, and it can then be given assistance in dealing skilfully with this problem. Some combination of the last two proposals, with gradually increasing emphasis on the third, may be the most desirable solution.

Problem 2. Lack of feeling that subgroup work is important.—The work of subgroups, like the work of individuals, achieves importance through two mechanisms: (1) the belief that it influences the actions of others and the future actions of one's self and (2) the belief that it influences these actions in some way that seems to be significant. In broad outline, this statement suggests ways in which subgroup work can be seen to be consequential. The first is by showing, through evaluation procedures, that behaviors valued by the students have been developed or modified in desirable directions. The second lies in seeing that the products of the subgroup work are built upon by the class as a whole, are prerequisite for further planning by the entire group.

There are probably two kinds of criteria that can be applied to the evaluation of the effectiveness of subgroup operation. First is the quality of some group product, such as a proposal to the class, the solution of a mathematical problem, or the planning for an experiment that all can perform. In this case the evaluation is prepared by the group. The second evaluative principle, however, is that, in subgroups operating without the active presence of a teacher, success means that all the students in the subgroup are brought to the level of skill originally possessed by the most skilful person. When a range of skills is considered, different persons in the group will provide the standard for different skills. Consequently there is required learning on the part of all. Of course, under conditions of really effective group work, everybody, including the most skilful, gains skill as the group works. But it may be that the criterion as stated is sufficient. Moreover, this statement of the criterion should make students feel that working together for the purpose of helping one another has dignity and value and should give the process adequate recognition by administrators.

The general principle is fairly clear that, whenever specific goals of the subgroup activity are visualized as first steps in an over-all strategy leading to major, more remote goals, then the subgroup work has consequences, since successful subgroup work is requisite for further progress. The essential requirement, then, would ap-

pear to be that the strategy of successive subgoal attainment be perceived clearly by the students as well as the teacher. Thus, the subgroup may be used for the purpose of clarifying suggestions that individuals wish to make to the class but do not feel "ready" to communicate; the subgroup may be used to furnish opportunity for expression of feelings leading to constructive criticisms which the class should consider in appraising its past conduct; the subgroups may be used to obtain a division of labor, with each group working on some one feature of a problem which must be combined with other features in a total worth-while product; the subgroup may be used to develop group strength through more rapid acceptance of individuals. In the latter case the specific goal is not an achievement goal per se but is rather a socialization goal which must be reached before the achievement goal can be adequately facilitated.

Problem 3. Shirking and dictation.—A common objection to working in subgroups is that there may be a tendency for one person to do all the work and all the others to make practically no contribution. An approach to the solution can be made through the concept of group observer, either by a designated member of the group or by the group as a whole. As a concrete proposal we would suggest that each subgroup (after the teacher has prepared the group for the role) give some member the job of paying attention to the group process and making such suggestions as these:

I wonder if all of us really see what Joe is driving at there.

I feel that each of us may have a somewhat different idea as to what our problem really is at this point.

We have all of us just agreed that thus and so seems to be the best thing to suggest to the class as a whole, but I wonder how strongly all of us really feel that way.

It seems to me that Mary's ideas are very helpful but that her talking so much is keeping some of the other people from expressing their ideas. I wonder if this is right.

In effect, such comments, when made with the approval and understanding of the group, act as trial balloons. They may be ignored or shouted down. On the other hand, they may lead to discussion and identification of serious problems which, without them, would not reach the surface and which must be solved by the group if individuals are to work effectively in the group. The kinds of questions that an observer raises could be discussed in advance and the role restructured from time to time as the group becomes sensitive to certain points which it feels are most critical to safeguard in its operation.

Problem 4. The development of intergroup competition and hostility.—Focusing our thinking on skills alone is inadequate. There is the whole area of basic psychological needs, which may be expressed in extremely subtle behaviors, such as clique formation, or communicated almost subvocally or nonverbally in the group. If the members of the clique are bonded together in the joy of shared accomplishment, the clique may well be an educational spur of great importance and effec-

tiveness. If, on the other hand, the clique represents a defensive coalition formed in the face of real or fancied hostility or aggression by the rest of the class, then rivalry and intergroup aggression and considerable unhappiness is almost sure to ensue.

The most obvious solution for this difficulty is to prevent its arising. It can be prevented by being very clear that the subgroupings are made for the purpose of solving particular problems or realizing particular needs for skill practice. Groupings on this basis, then, will certainly change in size from day to day. Under these conditions there should not be developed too much emotional dependency, in the psyche group sense, within the small groups of students. As a further safeguard, it seems reasonable to suggest that the membership in groups should be rotated. Rotation has the disadvantage that students must continuously expend time and effort in readjusting to other students in close working relationships. A positive value is the increased opportunity for learning through communication with more different persons. Whatever rotational practices are followed, however, must still meet the basic criteria of having adequate representation of necessary skills in each group.

Problem 5. The classroom administrative problem.—The principle of least group size, as advocated and explained above, would probably require recasting of some of our perceptions of the function of the class as a whole. The class as a total working group should

increase in effectiveness, rather than decrease, and this for two reasons:

- (1) The class meets as a whole only when the situation demands it—when this procedure is probably the most successful way of organizing effort.
- (2) The ego strength of the class as a whole should be considerably increased by the greater security and feeling of worth of each individual resulting from his greater success in a small group. The major change in perception, however, will lie in the recognition that probably the primary function of the class is to discuss and settle the question of how work shall be organized and individual efforts coordinated; the class as a whole acts as a clearing-house and a tester for ideas produced in the small groups. Suppose, for example, the class is involved in the problem of selecting its next unit of work. The class has been suggesting and briefly discussing, at a level which enables the pupils to visualize them, some alternatives as to what unit might be selected. At this point the class decides to break up into small groups to discuss the alternatives presented and to suggest new ones. The results of the small-group work are the suggestion of further alternatives or the clarification of alternatives already stated, to be taken back to the class as a whole for decision. The class as a whole then takes over the administrative function of organizing effort and also takes over the evaluative function of assessing what the implications of subgroup products are for the larger group.

SUMMARY

A number of related ideas for the social organization of learning in classes have been suggested. The basic idea has been labeled "the principle of least group size." The operation of the principle calls for:

1. Analysis of the learning problem that the group is ready for and of the skills needed to carry out the project.
2. Selection, following various diagnostic and assessment measures, of the smallest number of students who have among them these necessary skills.
3. Setting the groups to work as helpers of each member's learning and as collaborators in joint productive enterprises.
4. The use of several safeguards, such as:
 - a) Statement of specific goals for each group in advance.
 - b) Evaluation of the work of each group following each day's activity, as a way of insuring feelings of success (where success is possible from the judgment of the group's product).
 - c) Use of the observer function as a means of safeguarding individual participation and of meeting needs in connection with the group's purposes.
5. The perception of the whole class as an administrative body whose primary functions are:
 - a) To develop need for specific activities and learnings on the part of every class member.
 - b) To analyze the requirements of the learning for purposes of forming subgroups.
 - c) To act as a clearing-house for subgroup products and as interpreter of over-all progress.

It is believed that this plan is already practicable in such areas as drill activities and that, in connection with every other major objective, it offers

considerable promise for increasing instructional efficiency. Although the entire discussion has centered in the problem of classroom instruction, the source of the deductions in the general theory of group dynamics emboldens one to suggest that the principles outlined should be applicable to in-service faculty programs as well.

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RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

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THE development of workable guidance programs in our secondary schools demands a shift of thinking from subjects and subject materials to pupils—their needs and their problems. Many teachers are accustomed to think about education in terms of subject matter to be learned. Since their college courses emphasized mastery of facts, it is understandable that they should consider their function in the high school as primarily concerned with the teaching of facts. In answering the question, "What do you teach?" many will say, "I teach French, or mathematics, etc." They do not say, "I teach boys and girls who have different needs, interests, and aptitudes." The guidance program, with its stress on individual differences, requires that teachers shift their thinking from how to adjust Johnny to the curriculum to how to adjust the curriculum to Johnny. Many teachers, then, require redirection of their thinking if the guidance program is to succeed in helping youngsters to solve their problems.

The key person in redirecting the thinking of teachers must, of course, be the high-school principal. The

counselor performs the activities involved in implementing the guidance services of a school, but he is not the central figure. The success of a guidance program depends on the principal's establishment of a framework which will insure the smooth operation of the program. What the principal does, or fails to do, will decide, more than any other factor, the effectiveness of the guidance services. The appreciation and support which teachers will give to a guidance program is conditioned by the appreciation and support which the principal gives to it. What, then, are the responsibilities of the principal in supporting the guidance program?

For convenience in discussion, these responsibilities may be grouped under eight headings as follows: (1) procurement of facilities for counseling, (2) selection of counselors, (3) development of a sound public-relations program, (4) avoidance of overlapping between the functions of the principal and the counselor, (5) distribution of guidance services, (6) dissemination of occupational information, (7) assignment of time for guidance activities, and (8) arrangements for an efficient

method of sending for pupils to be interviewed. While these duties will be discussed in the order named, no importance should be attached to this order since the responsibilities overlap and are interdependent.

PROCUREMENT OF FACILITIES

Just as it is impossible for the teacher to instruct effectively without the assistance of modern teaching aids and a classroom in which to teach, so is it impossible for the counselor to serve the individual needs of boys and girls without adequate physical facilities. The principal is responsible for allocating office space for individual counseling. The location assigned for the counselor's office will indicate, in many cases, the principal's attitude toward the guidance program. For example, if he arranges for the counselor's office to be placed in an out-of-the-way corner of the high-school building, it will be clear to both students and teachers that he does not regard the guidance program as an integral part of the school program.

The high-school principal is also responsible for securing cumulative-record forms which dovetail with long-established permanent record cards. There is a tendency, on the part of some school people, to assume that permanent record cards for scholastic marks and cumulative records are different and distinct, but this is not the case. The concept "cumulative record" includes all records which furnish accurate, usable information about a

pupil over a period of years. In order for the guidance program to operate efficiently, it is highly essential that the principal make arrangements for the scholastic record to become an integral part of the school's cumulative-record system.

In addition, administrative authority is necessary for the procurement of the necessary office supplies, books and pamphlets for the occupational library, and tests for the study of individual differences. Without them, guidance services can exist only on paper.

SELECTION OF COUNSELORS

The principal of a high school is charged with the selection of members of the guidance staff for his school. He should select as counselors only individuals who possess a personality to which teachers and pupils respond satisfactorily. On the other hand, the principal must take cognizance of the fact that a "nice" personality is not the sole requisite for counseling. Warm, sympathetic understanding of youngsters is no guaranty of professional competence. The effective counselor must possess both the ability to establish good personal relationships and the requisite professional preparation. Thus, the counselor must give evidence of having taken professional guidance courses. He should also have had work experiences other than teaching. Furthermore, in selecting counselors, the principal must bear in mind that the counselor's office is not

the place for persons who are unsuccessful as teachers or who cannot solve their own problems.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

The success of any school program depends on good public relations—both within the school and the community. It is the responsibility of the principal to develop a favorable public attitude toward the guidance program on the part of teachers, pupils, and the citizens of the community in which the school is located. The principal is responsible for informing teachers and pupils about the objectives and purposes of the guidance program. In his contacts with parents, luncheon-club members, business groups, and the public in general, the principal has many opportunities to secure public support for the guidance program. The details of the public-relations program must, of course, be worked out by the individual school.

AVOIDANCE OF OVERLAPPING OF FUNCTIONS

In his zeal to advance the guidance program, the principal must constantly bear in mind that his own functions differ in many respects from those of the counselor. The principal is an administrator and a supervisor. In a school with a functional guidance program he should not attempt to assume the role of a counselor. Efficiency of operation is dependent on the division of labor. The day of the principal who "kept his hand in" by

assuming other than administrative and supervisory functions has drawn to a close. It would be an infringement on the time which he must devote to those duties if he were, for illustration, to help Johnny in selecting an occupation or a school. In the successful guidance program the principal makes sure that his activities do not overlap those of the counselor.

By the same token, the counselor is not an administrator and supervisor. It is not his function, for example, to aid teachers in improving methods of instruction through his supervision. True, the counselor will call the attention of the principal and the staff to certain needs of youngsters which may be met by curriculum revisions and improved teaching methods. The guidance program, however, cannot remedy imperfections inherent in the total program of the school. The counselor is a resource person for the principal and teachers. To them is assigned the function of carrying into effect any changes which the research studies of the counselor may indicate as desirable.

DISTRIBUTION OF GUIDANCE DUTIES

It is clearly the duty of the principal to distribute the guidance functions so that each member of the guidance staff will have definite tasks to perform. It may be desirable, for instance, to place one person in charge of the occupational library. Another person may be given the responsibility

for handling the testing program. In addition, the principal must bear in mind that he should arrange for all members of his teaching staff to participate at various times in the guidance program—serving on the school guidance committee, for example.

The guidance program is an integral part of the total educational program. A school does not have a guidance program merely because it has testing services, an occupational library, and counselors. It has a guidance program when all members of the staff are actively engaged in developing curriculum materials and methods of teaching which will meet the individual needs of boys and girls as uncovered by the guidance staff.

In order that the guidance personnel may perform their functions effectively, the principal must make sure that counselors are not permitted to take over extraneous duties and activities which properly should be assigned to others. It is not the purpose of the guidance services to supply clerks, relief teachers, attendance officers, supervisors of extra-curriculum activities, disciplinarians, overseers of study halls, or home-room teachers. The function of counselors is to counsel and to perform such related assignments as bear directly on the counseling process.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

Another responsibility of the principal in the guidance program pertains to the collection of occupational infor-

mation. Occupational information is defined as accurate, usable information about occupations. Since it is impossible to enter many occupations without training, the term "occupational information" includes information about training facilities as well as information about jobs. While a considerable amount of occupational information will be assembled by the guidance staff, the principal, in the ordinary course of events, will receive much helpful occupational information from various sources. Materials supplying this information should be turned over to the guidance staff in order that the data may be made readily available to students. These materials include notices of scholarships, changes in requirements for college admission, opportunities in the armed services, and the like. Occupational data piled high in the principal's office can have little influence on the educational and vocational planning of boys and girls.

TIME FOR GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

It is the duty of the principal to arrange time within the regular school day for guidance activities. For illustration, it has been found that "career days" are successful techniques for disseminating occupational information. Vocational talks in assemblies, as well as the showing of vocational-guidance films, also demand a certain portion of school time. Every course in the curriculum ought to include the study of occupations pertinent to that

course. Assisting the teacher to determine the amount of time to be allotted to the study of occupations is a function of the principal. In addition, the principal must decide on the amount of time to be devoted to specialized classes in occupations and self-appraisal.

Time also must be provided for group meetings in which the guidance program can be explained to students. Furthermore, time must be furnished within the regular school day for group testing. The principal will have to impress his faculty with the fact that testing is not something extraneous to the school program. Teachers must be convinced that guidance activities are fully as important as instructional activities and that time within school hours must be found for them.

SENDING FOR PUPILS TO BE INTERVIEWED

The principal must, of course, take those precautions that will insure the operation of the guidance program without undue interference with the daily school schedule. At the same time, it is also the duty of the administrator to see that the routine of the daily program does not complicate the efforts of the counselor to aid youngsters in solving their problems. Therefore, regulations for sending for pupils to be interviewed should be clearly understood by counselors, teachers, and pupils. A useful procedure might operate as follows:

1. In so far as possible, interviews would be arranged by appointment.

2. Two days in advance of an interview the counselor would prepare a call slip for the student who is to be interviewed.

3. The call slip would be given to the attendance clerk, in order that the student might not be marked "absent" on the day of his interview.

4. The clerk would forward the call slip to the home-room teacher who, in turn, would give it to the pupil.

5. The student would report directly to the guidance office for his interview.

6. The counselor would endeavor to call students during study periods. However, it would be understood by all persons concerned that pupils would be excused from subject classes for interviews. It is impossible for the counselor to arrange his schedule so that he sees pupils only during free periods.

7. One evidence of the success of any guidance program is to be found in the number of voluntary interviews which pupils seek. Hence, pupils should be encouraged to request the assistance of their counselor during study periods. Requests for such conferences should be made in advance, in order that the counselor may arrange his schedule.

8. Counselors should be prepared to see pupils before and after school on a voluntary basis. At certain times of the year, particularly before the election of studies, it would be especially important for counselors to extend their services to pupils.

9. Teachers would arrange to allow students to make up any work which they might miss as a consequence of the time spent in securing help from the counselor.

10. Parents should be interviewed by counselors during and after regular school hours. The counselor is obliged to spend a longer work day in school than other members of the high-school staff, in order to be of assistance to parents.

Modifications of these regulations will, of course, be necessary in order to meet the requirements of the local school situation. While they may appear trivial and inconsequential, nevertheless, experience has shown that guidance programs which do not pay attention to these details may meet with resistance, both from pupils and teachers.

RÉSUMÉ

The present article has presented a discussion of the responsibilities of the high-school principal in the guidance program. These responsibilities include securing appropriate physical facilities for counseling, selecting counselors, developing a public-rela-

tions program, avoiding overlapping of functions with those of the counselor, distributing guidance duties in accordance with sound principles of administration, disseminating occupational information, providing time for guidance activities, and arranging regulations for sending for pupils to be interviewed. If the school is to meet the needs of young people, the principal must administer and supervise the guidance program in such a way that pupils, teachers, and members of the community will recognize it as an integral part of the total educational pattern. The statements made in the present paper are offered as suggestions to the administrator in achieving this goal.

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EXPERTS LOOK AT CONSUMER EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

OTIS LIPSTREU

University of Colorado



FOR over a decade, many educators who have been quick to note the shifting of interest from the producer to the consumer in our dynamic economy have been attempting to determine and analyze the appropriate educational experiences which should constitute consumer education. Although considerable agreement has been evidenced in the delineation of these learning experiences, many divergent opinions remain concerning the most effective introduction and organization of a consumer-training program in the public schools. In an attempt to synthesize these opinions, forty-four of the leading authorities on consumer education, secondary education, and business education were queried regarding the more controversial issues in this field.

OBJECTIVES OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

The authorities were asked to evaluate eleven frequently mentioned objectives of consumer education on the basis of a graduated scale of importance. The various objectives, in order of evaluated importance, follow:

1. To promote wiser purchasing and consumption of food, clothing, shelter, and health
2. To provide experiences that will improve the ability of students to make rational choices
3. To develop intelligent consumer citizenship
4. To acquaint the student with agencies and sources of information that are helpful to the consumer
5. To develop a broad social intelligence in economic problems
6. To develop high standards of values and taste
7. To cultivate an appreciation of the role of the consumer in a profit economy
8. To promote co-operative attitudes that tend to increase the economic well-being
9. To provide means of evaluating the techniques of advertising
10. To develop an understanding of the significance of public expenditures
11. To develop in the consumer a philosophy about his use of leisure time, as well as good "buymanship" in satisfying his avocational interests.

PLACE OF CONSUMER EDUCATION IN THE CURRICULUM

The authorities' opinions differed with respect to the manner in which consumer education should be presented in the secondary school. Sever-

al indicated that it should be offered both as a separate course and also as a phase of several courses or as a part of the general-education or core-curriculum programs. None of the secondary-education authorities and only three of the specialists in consumer education are included in the nineteen jurors, approximately 43 per cent, advocating the separate course presentation. Thirty per cent of the authorities favored presenting consumer education as a phase of several courses, and 25 per cent believed that only the separate course might present adequate training for the consumer. While 14 per cent of the jurors suggested that effective presentation of consumer education might be attained through core-curriculum or general-education programs, 32 per cent of the authorities maintained that consumer education should be taught through several different channels.

This general indecision with respect to how consumer education should be offered stems, in all probability, from the vague and unsatisfactory definitions of the scope and the haziness of the objectives which have been advanced for consumer education. One general observation, based on the opinions of the authorities, however, is outstanding—those persons who have been closely associated with the development of consumer education, that is, the specialists in consumer education, doubt the value of a separate course.

Several studies have shown that most separate courses in consumer

education were related to the home-economics curriculum. However, the majority of the authorities who were queried in this study consider that, if a separate course is offered, it should not be placed or related to any particular subject. One respondent commented, "The competency of the teacher is of primary importance; the department is secondary."

A majority of the authorities believe that a separate course in consumer education should be one-half year in length and that, when it is offered, it should be a required course.

With respect to grade placement of a separate course, the majority favored placement as late as possible in Grades XI or XII. There was some support, however, for offering the course as early as possible, before a large number of students leave the secondary school.

In an effort to ascertain desirable procedures for introducing consumer education into the high-school curriculum, six frequently used procedures were listed, and the authorities were asked to evaluate them in order of effectiveness. Their evaluation is:

1. A committee of teachers who decide the phases of the subject which can be taken care of in various courses should be selected.
2. A planned informational campaign designed to make the teachers and pupils aware of the need for consumer education should be launched.
3. Teachers' meetings in which the importance of consumer education is emphasized should be held regularly.
4. Consumer education should be included in the course of study.

5. A series of tailor-made units for each subject-matter field should be provided.

The authorities rejected the sixth procedure, that of providing prescribed readings in consumer education for each course.

Some of the difficulties which will be encountered in any attempt to introduce consumer education into the secondary-school curriculums are:

1. Teachers and supervisors are not trained for the course.

2. Lack of readiness on the part of administrators, teachers, and pupils for a curriculum for better living.

3. Vested departmental interests which vie for control of consumer education.

4. A lack of effectively organized instructional material (a difficulty rapidly being remedied through the efforts of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals).

5. Public pressure against courses in consumer education.

6. Lack of school time for consumer education.

7. Precedent against consumer education.

8. Widespread differences regarding purposes and objectives.

9. Danger of consumer education's becoming a propaganda display for certain unsound economic and social ideas.

10. Duplication of other subject areas.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

The authorities who participated in this investigation were of the unanimous opinion that the teacher training provided by higher institutions for the development of competent teachers of consumer education is entirely inadequate, and recommendations

were made for the improvement of this situation. For example, it was suggested that an informational campaign be launched to get faculties of higher institutions interested in the problems of the consumer and that, at the university and college level, there be offered specific consumer-economics courses which would be combined learning and methods courses.

The overwhelming majority of the authorities predicted a bright future for consumer education in the secondary school. Several believe that, in time, secondary education will be built around needs and not around tradition and that, when that time arrives, consumer education will become an integral part of all secondary education.

The principal suggestions made by the authorities for the improvement of the secondary-school consumer-education program center in the problem of better teacher training in consumer education. Other major recommendations are: to make consumer education more realistic; to inform the public of the value of, and need for, consumer information in the schools; and to convince administrators that consumer education is a necessary part of the core curriculum.

An evaluation of these opinions gives convincing testimony that consumer education has established a definite foothold in the educational philosophy of school men and that, in the near future, we may expect its emergence as a vital part of secondary education.

LIBERAL EDUCATION AND SOCIAL-SCIENCE CLASS DISCUSSION

GEORGE E. PROBST
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A SOCIAL-SCIENCE COURSE

THE objective of the course Social Sciences I, in the College of the University of Chicago, is the promotion of intelligent citizenship through the study of some of the leading ideas which have expressed and influenced the developing culture of the American people. These ideas are studied as they appear in the major issues faced by Americans in the development of their economic and political institutions. In the examination of the controversies of the past, some of the recurrent problems that are examined are the proper relationship of man to man; of the individual, social, economic, and political institutions of one level of government to another; and of the United States to the rest of the world.

The readings are chosen, in the main, to provide statements of significant and conflicting ideas, tenaciously held and ably expressed. For example, both sides of the debate on independence, on the ratification of the Constitution, on the Hamiltonian economic measures, on Jacksonian democracy, on American imperialism, and on

the United Nations are represented. Consideration of different meanings of "liberty," "equality," "natural rights," "property," "federalism," "representative government," and "democracy," as they appear in the great controversies, constitutes an important part of the work. Documents are deliberately clustered about issues and arguments which remain significant. Selected critical periods in American history are given intensive attention, and the intervening periods of history are comparatively neglected.

From the study of the leading ideas in their historical context, the student is expected to gain facility in using these concepts to obtain a fair knowledge of some of the outstanding facts of American history and to become familiar with some of the leading interpretations of major aspects of that history. In the process it is necessary for him to develop skills in reading, interpretation, writing, and conversational expression.

The reading in the course is almost wholly taken from three volumes of selected readings and from a one-vol-

ume college textbook in United States history. The student attends one interpretive lecture each week. Readings, textbook, and lectures are brought to a focus in discussion groups which meet three times weekly under the leadership of a member of the staff. Here the good teacher succeeds in posing policy issues in problem form, so that historical problems come alive as basic controversies. It may be that, here as elsewhere, informal campus discussions are of equal importance to the students. This last skill, the ability of the student to analyze and to discuss a fundamental problem in co-operation with his fellow-students and the teacher, is the subject of this article. What part does the teacher play in developing this skill in the student?

VARIOUS CONCEPTS OF TEACHING THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Teaching as an art.—The interpretation is often made that teaching is an art. This statement is true, and it implies that the teacher must be prepared to meet an ever new situation with his students. Each class is regarded as a different constellation of personalities and abilities. Discussion questions that succeed with one group of students, in terms of an intellectual approach to a problem, may fail with a second set of students. Again, say teachers who believe that this is the true interpretation of the classroom discussion problem, accidents of conversation and temperament enter in

to make impossible the establishment of a general pattern of questions as soon as there is free discussion of the material. The teacher finds himself trapped by the force of circumstance and subject to the whims and the accident of a casual question by any student in any row.

Every teacher must feel some sympathy and agreement for this view of the process of classroom discussion. Every teacher has been victimized by this situation. Every teacher has had the experience of succeeding with one pattern of questions in a class and then, with the same material and questions, in the hour following, failing dismally to make the key point or to develop the argument on the material in the same satisfactory way as had been done in the preceding class. Thus, according to this interpretation, teaching is something of a chaotic process in which the teacher must make the best he can of each special situation in which he finds himself. Teaching, therefore, is felt to be an art.

Covering the ground.—A second interpretation of teaching in the social sciences is one which holds that the ground must be "covered." The premises of this view are familiar to all. It assumes that there is a certain mass of material of importance and significance, agreed on by authorities, which can be, and should be, acquired by the student. This view assumes that, when this material is acquired, it carries with it a set of constant meanings and

will succeed in orienting the student to that view of things which is correct and desirable. Often this view assumes that there are certain major trends and events in American history which are so significant that failure to present them to the student would constitute a "teaching disgrace."

The allocation of participation.—Another interpretation of the problem of classroom discussion defines the problem in terms of the allocation of participation. How much should the teacher participate? How much should the student participate? How much participation should there be among students? According to this view, the way in which the hour of discussion is shared is of crucial importance.

The writer would argue that this is a question that can be usefully answered only after asking another question, "What should be talked about?" The test of a good discussion is not participation by all class members. If it were, all discussions could be made satisfactory by having each student speak. The only possible basis for deciding whether class time is divided well is the quality of the discussion. Is anyone saying anything worth while? Is there evidence that the students understand what is being said? The problem of whether the students are learning to think for themselves will never be settled or solved by a measurement of the amount of time spent in talking by various participants in the classroom situation.

Strict neutrality.—Another view of the process of leadership of classroom

discussion on problems of policy in the social sciences holds that it is the duty of the teacher to evoke the significance and meaning of the documents and events under consideration but that he has a restrictive obligation not to express his own personal view or preference on the policy problem being considered. This position points out that the teacher has the superior role in a hierarchy. He has all the advantage in any argument with the student which may result from any expression of teacher preferences. The ideal would be, if possible, for an instructor to teach for a year in American history and, at the end of that time, let no student be able to say whether the instructor was conservative or radical. According to this view, the problem of teaching is the problem of effective innocuousness. Teaching is an intellectual game. The game, unfortunately, cannot be played unless the student thinks about problems of public policy, but this is not to be done in an atmosphere of involvement or personal commitment to the rightness of anything. As part of this game of saying nothing in words, such expressions as, "Well, what do you think?" "On the one hand and on the other hand," "That is very interesting," or "It depends on the point of view" become common phrases of the teaching vocabulary.

This may be a satisfactory state of things in terms of the current political climate, but it violates all the expectations of the normal teaching relationship. Why should the student try to

judge policies and events if the teacher refuses to attempt it? The student wants to know what it is the teacher thinks he should be learning. The student wants to know whether the teacher thinks that an idea is of real value. The student wants to sense some teacher enthusiasm and interest in having the student share in an understanding of great ideas. If the teacher is restless and fidgety under the pressure of being asked what his opinion is, a student view, more often felt than expressed, will be, "No, I don't see why I should worry about that."

Because of these and other considerations, the best thing for the teacher to do in meeting this problem is to make a candid and open declaration of his policy preferences, in an atmosphere that encourages the student to challenge and question those preferences, without the teacher's authority being called into the scales to weigh against the student. Every intelligent student will suspect the existence of these preferences if they are not declared. The degree of misunderstanding of the teacher's statement will increase to the extent that these preferences are not declared. Is the student then at the mercy of the teacher? No. The basic and original documents of American intellectual development are the student's best armory against the prejudiced teacher. The student may use, for example, Hamilton's arguments to support his own attitudes against, say, the Jeffersonian bias of his teacher.

THE QUALITIES OF A GOOD TEACHER

In raising this problem of the prejudiced teacher, however, we have also raised the problem of what the personal qualities of the good teacher are, if he is not to teach in a manner that is prejudiced but is still to present his own views. The good teacher wins the respect of his students and allows them the freedom to be themselves. He carefully avoids trying to make the students over in his own image. The good teacher becomes familiar with the personal background of his students. He sees to it that the physical facilities encourage discussion. For ease of discussion, he arranges the class in a circle so that every student can see and talk easily to every other student. The good teacher is natural, informal, and courteous. Excessive dignity or ceremony is likely to hinder free discussion. He is a good listener. The good teacher does not hurry the student and avoids interrupting him until he has had the opportunity to give his story in full and explain the problem as he sees it. The good teacher is not afraid of silence. Any recording of a good class discussion will reveal a surprising amount of time devoted to silence. The good teacher tries to build silence in which reflective thought and analysis are being carried on by every student.

The competent teacher is not afraid to admit mistakes or errors of statement. The students will respect a teacher who can admit he has made a mistake in the argument. They will re-

spect a teacher who does not regard himself as infallible. Instead of weakening the teacher-student relationship, such admissions, when they are in order, may actually serve to strengthen the tie. Having achieved this mental attitude, a teacher need not fear the charge of being prejudiced, even though he clearly states his own value position.

MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD PROCEDURES

What of the problem of the teacher's responsibility for coverage? Is he to take the view that, in order to cover the material, he must use most of the class time in bringing his knowledge to bear in an explanatory fashion? Or is he to risk continually the shambles of a completely uncontrolled discussion? Is there any middle-of-the-road procedure which develops the student's ability to think and to deal adequately with the material and which, at the same time, covers the material? Can the middle of the road be found in the procedure in which the teacher is asking questions on the material—holding to it somewhat rigorously—but, at the same time, making the great share of his participation in the form of questions?

Penetrating questions.—Is this position defensible in terms of a responsibility to the subject matter? It is argued here that it is, if the questions are penetrating. A critical mind in the student, guided by basic questioning by the teacher, will provide all the coverage that can be reasonably expected. Of course this procedure as-

sumes that the student has prepared his assignment and that the reading has not been so extensive that he is unable to assimilate it and use it in discussion.

If the teacher is to carry on discussions of public policy, it is his responsibility to do so in such a way that there is a distinction between the classroom activity and the usual "bull session" among students. The classroom discussion should be less random, less disorganized, and have a greater quality of penetration and exploratory value to it. The competent teacher is the teacher who can ask the right questions.

If the important thing in the teacher, then, is the quality of the questions that he asks, are these questions to be derived from a purely a priori analysis of the documents and events under consideration? The answer to that is "No." The best question to ask for beginning a discussion about Thoreau's essay, *Civil Disobedience*,¹ is not the question, "What is the main idea in Thoreau?" or, "What is the role of the individual in Thoreau's system?" or, "What is the relation between the Mexican War and Thoreau?" The best question to ask to begin the discussion is, "Do you think Thoreau is practical?" This is the question to ask because classroom experience reveals that all the elements of Thoreau's thought and action will be cited by the student in his effort to answer this

¹ Henry David Thoreau, *Civil Disobedience*. Harrington Park, New Jersey: 5×8 Press, 1942.

most real and pertinent question. After the student's first answer to "Is Thoreau practical?" the second question by the teacher should be "What is the evidence that Thoreau's position was practical or impractical in his time?" The structure of Thoreau's essay contains such tension and the problems are such dilemmas that, as the student attempts to justify his own judgment of Thoreau, he is forced to bring to bear all his critical examination of the text and of the events of the time.

Another example which illustrates a different approach in a different area can be seen in the discussion of Woodrow Wilson's views on American foreign policy. Here the sharpest challenge to the student is to ask, "What are the differences in views on foreign policy to be found in a comparison of Woodrow Wilson and Alfred Thayer Mahan?" Holding this as the primary question for the discussion hour and continually bringing the student back to face the query, the teacher can force Wilson's basic premises into the open as the students contrast Wilson with "the mission of America," according to Mahan, which the students have read for earlier discussions. Experience will reveal the mistake of merely asking the student, "What are Wilson's views on foreign policy?" The student can readily recite by giving some of the magnificent Wilsonian rhetoric, but the evidence of a genuine understanding of the meaning of this rhetoric rarely emerges, and the student will never have the intellectual

shock of finding how difficult it is to distinguish Wilson from Mahan in the area of foreign policy.

A Challenge.—If the aim is to teach the student to think, the role of the teacher is to challenge the student to think. If the teacher is to challenge the student to think, he must do it through questions. If his questions are to be good, they must begin at the right place. They must be in a pattern. They must follow one on the other in a related fashion, so that the student, without being asked to leap too much at any given time, is able to move along and to develop the logical implications of each position. New propositions are exposed. New premises are laid bare. New questions are raised. The good teacher is the teacher who can carry the discussion beyond the point which the student is able to reach with his fellows. This kind of joint thinking of one's way to new intellectual grounds is only possible if the reading in the course possesses depth of thought and good language which make the student think and understand.

A SUMMING-UP

The propositions then are: There is an intellectual unity in such material that makes the use of certain "question structures" possible and, indeed, indispensable. This intellectual unity is not always best revealed for classroom purposes through pre-classroom logical analysis, but the best questions are often discovered through experience. The structure of these questions

is discovered through experience, and, though this experience may seem to be constantly changing, over a period of time certain areas are sketched out in which the questions are formulated so successfully that they succeed in evoking the desired critical examination and intellectual growth over any range of significant classroom experience. The teacher is asking the questions and can avoid being subject to the whim of the casual question of the student. The teacher's responsibility is to guide the students in a discussion of a persistent issue and to make sure that the discussion is authoritative, competent, informative, and reasonable and that it progresses into areas of problems and implications which the student would not work out alone.

Good discussion depends on adequate preparation by the student. It depends on a cross-examining analysis of the issue—from student to student as well as from teacher to student. The test of the sharing of participation—of whether or not the student should participate in the discussion—is solved

by answering the problem: Are the appropriate questions in this area being raised and being dealt with? The teacher should not make any effort to encourage controversy where none exists. Controversy for its own sake handicaps classroom discussion. Controversy on minor points annoys, rather than interests, the students. Controversy adds to the students' interest and enlightenment only when it is a genuine disagreement over fundamentals, only when it brings to light a basic understanding of the meaning of some important philosophic proposition or historical event. The ideal goal of the classroom discussion in social sciences is enlightenment and truth-seeking. In order to achieve these objectives, the classroom must be dedicated to making truth felt and to influencing the students to think and to act rationally. If this is done in an atmosphere of integrity, of social responsibility, and of knowledge, the leader of discussion in social-science problems will have discharged his responsibility.

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CURRENT MATERIALS IN A WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAM

KATHARINE DRESDEN

Stanford University



YOU would like to have a work-experience project in your school but don't know where to get instructional materials? You, and several hundred others! Mrs. Flora Daugherty, advisement counselor at Kearny Junior-Senior High School, came up against this same problem and set out to lick it.

She is a member of the California Council on Improvement of Instruction, which organized in 1946 for the purpose of studying the use of current materials in the classroom.¹ In her course in "Diversified Occupations" she found that the usual textbooks on occupations made a fine starting point but that they were too brief, too general, and too "dated" to be wholly adequate. So she supplements the textbooks with a rich offering of current materials.

Mrs. Daugherty has organized this course for boys and girls who are not "book-learners"—those who, before the days of compulsory school attendance, went to manual labor or domes-

tic jobs at fourteen years of age. Now they are in school, but they are ready for job training. Mrs. Daugherty uses three approaches to the situation: the class session itself, the personal interview, and the job. These are not compartmentalized as the statement of them would indicate; for the class and job run concurrently and the interviews are held before, after, and during the course.

THE CLASS SESSION

The class work is divided into four large units based on the needs of these particular boys and girls. Unit I, "Know Yourself," also helps Mrs. Daugherty to know her pupils. During class time a rather complete battery of tests is taken by each pupil. This includes the SRA Primary Mental Abilities Test, the Kuder Preference Record, and the California Test of Personality. Following these, tests of special abilities are administered in the areas indicated on the Preference Record. If ability and preference do not correlate, further ability tests and other approaches are used.

As the tests are given, they are discussed in class so that the pupils may

¹ Reginald Bell and Lucien Kinney, *Better Teaching through the Use of Current Materials*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1947.

understand just what is happening.² Results are recorded on an Interests and Abilities Chart, devised by Mrs. Daugherty, which is filed for each pupil. Here, too, the pupil records his physical standing and mental health as the various items are discussed and analyzed in class.

Supplementing this unit, the boys and girls are encouraged to read, bring in, and report on, "personality" articles from popular teen-age magazines. "Teens of Our Times" from *Good Housekeeping* is posted on the bulletin board, along with "Model Mother," "She's Beautiful, She's Engaged," and similar advertisements. *This Week* editorials frequently fit into the display. On the table are pamphlets put out by insurance companies, by the United States Department of Agriculture, and by other groups concerned with the well-rounded development of the individual. Mrs. Daugherty has a file of these materials as a backlog, but once the pupils are alerted to the possibilities, they bring them in quantities.

The second unit, "Know Your Job," entails an extensive occupational analysis. A great deal of current material is used to keep the pupils abreast of modern job trends, to provide realistic materials, and to try to raise the pupils' reading interests above the pulp-magazine level. "Job

² Would that space permitted a dissertation here on the values that accrue from letting pupils know what they are doing. Might not the children put the school before the community in a more favorable light if they understood the purposes behind all that goes on in school?

News," "Interesting People," and "Personality Sketches" sections of such magazines as *Seventeen*, *Red Book*, *American Magazine*, *Time*; feature articles in *Junior Bazaar*, *Life*, *Holiday*, *Saturday Evening Post*; and industrial pamphlets, such as those put out by the telephone company, are used for reference reading. Films are shown extensively, including those put out by the utilities companies and other industries. Tours are conducted regularly through the vocational school, merchandising establishments, factories, and offices. Men in the community who are successful in various fields contribute their time to speak to the class or to counsel individually with pupils who are interested in specific fields.

Remembering that these pupils usually are not avid readers nor adept at verbal expression, Mrs. Daugherty uses other devices to encourage expression. Each pupil tries various skills and keeps a check list of those completed satisfactorily. Through the sociodrama and the psychodrama, he analyzes and modifies his reactions to society and to himself. The class prepares and broadcasts a radio program, "I Want a Job," over a local station.

Unit III, "How To Play—Enjoy This Day!" is too often neglected in courses of this type, but Mrs. Daugherty has developed it with the same care and gives it the same weight as the other units. Each pupil is directed into club work which he will enjoy and in which he can make a contribution.

He brings his hobbies into the classroom, perhaps turns them into job possibilities. Sports, drama, reading, music, and all leisure-time pursuits are developed through the use of current materials and learn-by-doing techniques.

Unit IV, "How To Grow Up," is the final unit, and it takes the boy or girl from his primary family group out into the larger school, job, and community groups and gives him a little insight into himself as an economic, as well as a social, entity. Boy-girl relations are included through such readings as the feature articles in *Charm*, *Glamour*, and *Mademoiselle*.

THE PERSONAL INTERVIEW

One period a day Mrs. Daugherty reserves for personal interviews. She goes over with each pupil his Interests and Abilities Chart and counsels him in areas indicated as necessary on the chart, in the psychodramas, or in other observation. Available job openings that match his capabilities are recommended to him. She counsels him on the job. A unique aspect of the course is the use of local business, professional, and working men and women as big brothers or sisters. One is assigned to each pupil, and we may well imagine that there is a two-way flow between pupil and adult, between school and community.

THE JOB

Each of these pupils spends a part of the day in school and a part of the

day at work. They may get their own jobs, or Mrs. Daugherty will help them. They take the jobs on a tryout basis, but every effort is made to match job and individual so that there will be a minimum of "sampling." Close contact is maintained between employer and school, so that the work of the pupil will actually be supervised and so that the school will be able to furnish the community the most adequate service.

Thus Mrs. Daugherty makes use of a most valuable current material—the community. Because she knows the community, she can prepare her pupils in a concrete, realistic fashion. Because members of the community know her, they can keep her informed of their needs. This two-way flow means that there is no break between school and after-school; the two merge.

After twelve years, the school is "through" with the child; the child has "no more teachers, no more school." Is he equipped to get along without them? Since Mrs. Daugherty and all C.C.I.I. teachers feel that developing independence is a major responsibility of the school, they consciously set out to teach children how to read newsstand magazines, how to view films critically, how to analyze speeches. They give them experience in discussion techniques. Such boys and girls step from school into an adult world, use adult materials, think and act like adults—and sometimes better!

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

III. THE SUBJECT FIELDS—CONTINUED



THIS third and final list of selected references on secondary-school instruction to appear in the current volume of the *School Review* contains items dealing with the subject fields not represented in the February issue, namely, industrial and vocational arts, home economics, business education, music, art, and health and physical education. The present list, like the first and second, follows a definition of "instruction" which includes its three main aspects of (1) curriculum, (2) methods of teaching and study and supervision, and (3) measurement.

INDUSTRIAL AND VOCATIONAL ARTS:

HOMER J. SMITH

University of Minnesota

246. BROPHY, JOHN M., and SHAW, I. BRADFORD. *Industrial Training—A Guide to Selected Readings*. New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Extension Bulletin No. 1. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University, 1948. Pp. 32.

* See also Item 532 (Miller) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1948, number of the *School Review*. The article appeared also in the February, 1948, number of the *American Vocational Journal*.

This guide contains fifteen lists under headings that include "Apprentice Training," "Company Programs," "Methods of Training," "Evaluation of Training Programs," and "Bibliographies." There is an author index, and a list of periodicals is cited.

247. DIAMOND, THOMAS. "Difficulties Encountered by Beginning Teachers," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXXVII (October, 1948), 299-301.

The author makes a forceful presentation by citing fourteen difficulties, each of which is explained in some detail. The reader, especially the teacher, even though not a beginner, finds here a means of evaluating his practices and gets some good advice as well.

248. *Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1947*. Washington: Division of Vocational Education, United States Office of Education, 1948. Pp. vi+70.

Presents a description and full-data coverage of federally aided vocational education under the Smith-Hughes, George-Deen, and George-Barden Acts. Twenty-two tables and seven charts are concerned with enrolments, money allotments, expenditures, etc., in agricultural, business, home-economics, and trade and industrial education, as well as in occupational information and guidance. Allied services in all these areas are included in addition to formal class work.

249. GREIBER, C. L. (director). *A Bulletin Containing a Partial List of Trade and*

Industrial Books. Occupational Information and Guidance Bulletin, O.I.G.S.-1505. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin State Board of Vocational and Adult Education, 1948. Pp. iv+92. Presents thirty-three book lists, placed in alphabetical order according to headings of which the following are illustrative: "Aviation," "Commercial Art," "Mechanical Engineering," "Plastics," "Radio," and "Welding." There are annotations throughout, and a list of publishers is appended.

250. KELLER, FRANKLIN J. *Principles of Vocational Education: The Primacy of the Person.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. 402.

An engaging presentation of the purposes and practices of vocational education conceived of as service to individuals within a framework of education for all. There is the usual coverage of history, school types, specific aims, curricular problems, methods, and administration, but there is more than usual of the philosophical approach to the phases and interests selected for discussion.

251. KEPLER, FRANK ROY; NICHOLSON, FRED S.; SLOAT, WILLIAM G.; and TUCKER, N. RALPH. *An Analysis of Drafting for Teachers.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. vi+154.

Four authors of long and varied classroom experience have provided a detailed volume "to serve as a manual in planning and improving instruction in drafting." Analysis procedures have made it possible for them to present the specifics of this earning field and school subject in the form of operations, related information, and guidance values. A three-part appendix and an index are valuable sections of the bulletin.

252. LOFGREN, PAUL V. W. "The Use of Tests in the Selection of Trade and Industrial Teachers and in the Placement of Their Students," *American Vocational Journal*, XXIII (June, 1948), 19-20, 29. Describes the University of California (Berkeley) trade-test program, which aims

to evaluate the occupational competence of applicants for preparation as vocational teachers. Explains the California Trade Test now in use, with supplementation by interview estimates, and the administration of standardized tests of a more general kind. Urges the adaptation of the test to shop and classroom use as an instructional aid.

253. MAYS, ARTHUR B. *Principles and Practices of Vocational Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. viii+304.

A national leader has provided an informative and well-organized treatment of vocational education which will prove useful to persons making special preparation and also to other teachers, school administrators, school-board members, and lay readers. Use of the volume as a basic textbook is assured and strengthened by the fact that all chapters close with a summary, questions and problems, and selected references. Clarifies general principles of vocational education and considers their relation to each of the several educational fields or areas commonly thought of as vocational in intent, plan, and procedure. Discusses relationships between vocational education and such related endeavors as practical arts, vocational guidance, and teacher preparation.

254. RAKESTRAW, C. E. *Training High-School Youth for Employment.* Chicago: American Technical Society (850 East Fifty-eighth Street), 1947. Pp. 218.

This book outlines "a plan under which vocational training on a co-operative part-time basis can be offered in high schools. Includes background and need for such a program and detailed discussion of organizational and operational procedures." It contains materials helpful in extending, and giving valid pattern to, a type of school service now well advanced. Chief attention is given to the Diversified Occupations Program—a broad and adaptable form of co-operative part-time vocational education.

255. *Report of Second Inter-regional Conference in the Field of Teacher Training—Trade and Industrial Education.* Washington: United States Office of Education, 1948. Pp. 30.

This is a report showing rather common agreement by selected conferees from all parts of the nation regarding problems in the preparation of teachers, co-ordinators, supervisors, and directors of trade and industrial education. On the basis of current offerings and observed needs, certain courses and practices of teacher training in this field are set forth. Distinction is made among proposals for full-time and part-time school workers, apprentices, etc. Suggestions are given for the organization and conduct of teacher-training programs of both formal course work and related services.

256. *School Shop Safety Manual.* Brooklyn, New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1948. Pp. xii+240.

This manual, prepared for local use, constitutes a major source of aid to all persons concerned with safety in school classrooms and shops. Four parts, with titles as follows, are presented in much detail: "School Shop Safety Regulations," "Teachers' Guide," "Suggested Safe Practices," and "Suggested Safety Examinations." There are lists of selected references under four-fold classification: "Teaching Guides," "Safety Information," "Visual Aids," and "Bibliographies."

257. SMITH, EVERETT G. "How Much College Credit for Trade and Industrial Experience?" *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXXVII (December, 1948), 394-96.

State supervisors of vocational trade and industrial education and representatives of higher institutions that prepare and upgrade vocational-industrial instructors and administrators co-operated in this questionnaire study. Responses of the two groups are shown in connection with the questions used. On the basis of these findings and other modifying conditions, a pro-

posed curriculum for students majoring in trade and industrial education is shown, together with a plan of experience evaluation and crediting.

258. WENRICH, RALPH C. "The Opinion Poll: A New Device in Educational Planning," *School Shop*, VII (March, 1948), 7-8.

Presents a report of opinions and attitudes of a cross-section of Michigan residents concerning school preparation for occupational life. The sample included high-school pupils, teachers, school administrators, parents in varying types of work, veterans, leading educators, and industrialists. The results suggest inadequacy of the state program in vocational education and offer leads to its appropriate expansion and improvement.

259. WILBER, GORDON O. *Industrial Arts in General Education.* Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co., 1948. Pp. xiv+362.

A good basic textbook for use by persons in preparation for, or serving as, industrial-arts instructors. There are many substantial chapters covering aspects of purpose, physical provision, course content, method, management, and evaluation in this curriculum area. The book is finely constructed, well illustrated, and contains a good index.

HOME ECONOMICS

NAOMI KELLER

University of Chicago

260. ABEL, DOROTHY LOIS. *Making House-keeping Easy.* New York: Funk & Wagnalls, 1948. Pp. xiv+300.

Furnishes a philosophy of housekeeping, practical helps for keeping a house, and additional hints for good ways of doing many other things which housekeeping entails. A reference for high-school classes in home management.

261. AUSTIN, JEAN. "Where To Spend? Where To Save?" *American Home*, XXXIX (April, 1948), 38-43.

Provides a number of good suggestions for wise expenditure of a limited budget in the initial furnishing of a home. Would be helpful to a student working on budgeting of the family income or on a unit in home-furnishing. The author suggests a number of ideas for being thrifty, which makes the material especially useful if lower and moderate incomes are being studied.

262. BRADLEY, CAROLYN G., and DEITZ, MEREDITH F. *Costume and You*. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co., 1948. Pp. 146.

A well-organized workbook-textbook on costume design and personality development for high-school students. Interspersed with the reading materials are spaces in which the student may work out a personal study as the course progresses. Contains many illustrations which arouse enthusiasm for, and interest in, the book.

263. DALY, SHEILA JOHN. *Pretty Please*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1948. Pp. 140.

A discussion on good grooming written for the high-school girl. The book is written with a personal approach and covers all phases of the subject, and the numerous illustrations add zest and interest to the book. A check-up chart at the close of the volume provides a device for self-evaluation on grooming.

264. GILLIES, MARY DAVIS. *All about Modern Decorating*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1948. Pp. xii+250.

Deals with all phases of home decoration. The book begins with the suggestion that ideally home-furnishings should differ to meet the tastes and needs of particular individuals within each house, and the discussion is built from this opening, including a brief discussion on the exterior of the house. Some of the illustrations are good for teaching art principles in the home. Suitable for a high-school reference on the subject.

265. GOODELL, MARTHA. "On My Own," *What's New in Home Economics*, XIII (September, 1948), 42-43, 156, 159.

Describes an unusual and exciting plan used by the author and her class for studying a choice of vocations, problems in home management, hospitality, consumer buying, etc., in a semester's course. Many of the problems discussed in the class were real ones which the group solved as the course progressed.

266. GOSSETT, MARGARET, and ELTING, MARY. *Now You're Cookin'*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1948. Pp. 256.

A cookbook which is designed for teenagers who are interested in cooking, especially if they wish to cook for others. Each chapter is organized around a particular occasion and includes details for the time schedule, menu, market order, equipment, organization in the kitchen, etc. The clever cartoons and conversational style of writing make it an appealing book for youth.

267. GRAHAM, RUTH E. "Clothing Laboratory Equipment," *What's New in Home Economics*, XII (June, 1948), 38-39, 136.

An excellent article describing special features used in equipping the Clothing Laboratory in Pennsylvania State College. Provides a number of ideas which home-economics teachers who are interested in equipping a clothing laboratory in a secondary school will find helpful.

268. GUILD, VIRGINIA. "Watch Out for Elective Courses!" *Forecast for Home Economists*, LXIV (October, 1948), 52.

An article well worth reading by a high-school student who may be interested in a college major in home economics. It offers suggestions for courses to take in college and points out some of the things to look for and consider in studying courses offered in various college home-economic departments.

269. HENRY, M. FRANCES. "Right Stitching . . . Right Place," *What's New in Home Economics*, XIII (December, 1948), 28-29.

An article valuable for students of clothing. This material could be placed on a bulletin board or in a loose-leaf notebook. Contains excellent illustrations and, in concise form, gives many pointers on good sewing techniques.

270. JENKINS, GLADYS GARDNER. "Growing from Two to Five," *Parents' Magazine*, XXIII (October, 1948), 24-25, 60, 62.

A well-written article which provides good reading for high-school students who are studying family relations or child development. It explains some of the differences in small children and points out some of the changes which take place in the child as he matures toward school age.

271. LAM, GWEN. "Easter Style Show," *Practical Home Economics*, XXVI (March, 1948), 171, 202.

Presents a simple style-show program which provides a good opportunity for displaying the various types of things made in clothing classes. A large dress shop supplies the theme for the show which could be produced easily.

272. MOORE, BERNICE MILBURN, and LEAHY, DOROTHY M. *You and Your Family*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. vi+440.

A new textbook or reference on personality development and family relationships, written at students' suggestion and with contributions and criticisms from boys and girls. The style is especially arranged for student reading.

273. PIERCE, WELLINGTON G. *Youth Comes of Age*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. x+400.

A book dealing with personal problems on adjustment and social relationships that confront youth, particularly young people of high-school age. Suggestions for additional reading appear at the close of each chapter, and lists of available films on the subject are also found in the book.

274. SHANK, DOROTHY E., and WOOD, ELIZABETH A. "Food Economics in Summary: Foods and Nutrition,"

What's New in Home Economics, XII (June, 1948), 43-52, 126.

This food summary provides up-to-date material for a teacher of foods who is working on food budgeting and menu-planning for families of varied sizes and with various incomes. Also gives suggestions for meals that can be prepared quickly and for other menus in keeping with the current trends in foods.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

EDWIN A. SWANSON

San Jose State College
San Jose, California

275. ANDERSON, RUTH I. "Research in Shorthand and Transcription," *Journal of Business Education*, XXIII (January, 1948), 18-20; (February, 1948), 18-20.

Presents a comprehensive analysis and classification of research in shorthand and transcription completed prior to January, 1946.

276. BIESTER, LILLIAN L. "A Philosophy of Business Education for Minnesota High Schools," *Balance Sheet*, XXIX (January, 1948), 202-3.

Describes the development of a stated philosophy and position to be used as a guide by a newly appointed state supervisor.

277. BOLAND, KATHLEEN. "Distributive Education Students Need Visual Presentation in Window-Display Training," *Balance Sheet*, XXX (September, 1948), 19-21.

Gives suggestive help to those persons planning new school buildings including business classrooms.

278. CLEVINGER, EARL. "Selection Procedures for Office Employees"; CRAWFORD, EDWARD I., "A Course of Study in Interpretative Accounting"; and HOSLER, JOHN RUSSELL, "The Relation of Business Education to Other Subject Fields in the Public High Schools

- of Indiana," *Review of Business Education*. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1948. Pp. 36.
- Abstracts of three doctoral dissertations of interest to administrators and business teachers.
279. DOTSON, VERNER L. "Procuring Funds for Office Machines," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XVI (May, 1948), 43-48.
- Describes principles of procedure developed and used in Seattle, Washington.
280. *Enrichment in Teaching Business Education*. Seventeenth Yearbook of the Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity. New York: Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity, 1947. Pp. xiv+226. (For sale by University Book Store, New York University.)
- Provides an opportunity to evaluate the thinking and instructional practices of New York City business teachers.
281. FREEMAN, M. HERBERT. "The Beginning Bookkeeping Teacher," *Journal of Business Education*, XXIV (November, 1948), 22-24, 28.
- Presents a summary of some of the approaches and techniques used in the teaching of elementary bookkeeping.
282. FRISCH, VERN A. *The Organization and Operation of a Clerical Practice Laboratory*. Monograph 68. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1947. Pp. 44.
- Outlines in detail a plan for clerical office-practice instruction at the high-school level.
283. GEMMELL, JAMES. "Q-SAGO Unit: 'Planning a Business Career,'" *Business Education World*, XXVIII (May, 1948), 550-53.
- The eighth article in a special methodology series for teachers of elementary business training. Illustrative and suggestive both for teachers and for supervisors of instruction.
284. GIBSON, E. DANA. "Using Audio-visual Aids in Shorthand and Typewriting," *American Business Education*, IV (December, 1947), 95-110.
- Presents a comprehensive discussion of the problem of getting appropriate aids into use in the business classroom. Includes bibliography and list of audio-visual aids.
285. GIVEN, JOHN N. "The Business Teacher as a Craftsman," *Business Education World*, XXVIII (June, 1948), 602.
- The tenth article in a suggestive and helpful administrative series by the Los Angeles city supervisor of business education.
286. HAAS, KENNETH B. "Vocational Training in Business Education," *Business Education World*, XXVIII (February and March, 1948), 336-41, 396-400.
- Those persons who are responsible for curriculum aspects of administering a program of business education will want to read this analytic review of principles of vocational business education with suggestions for future development.
287. HANNA, J. MARSHALL. "Making Changes in the Bookkeeping Course," *American Business Education*, IV (March, 1948), 179-81, 185.
- Presents a suggestive discussion of the type of bookkeeping course that should be offered in the secondary school, including some implications for teacher training, instructional research, and vocational and general education.
288. HARMS, HARM. *Methods in Vocational Business Education*. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1949. Pp. vi+338.
- Includes basic concepts and psychological foundations; methodology related to typewriting, shorthand, transcription, bookkeeping, and office practice; and source materials and bibliography.

289. HUFFMAN, HARRY. *The Use of Common Experiences in the Approach to Elementary Bookkeeping*. Bulletin No. 44. Harrisonburg, Virginia: National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions, 1948. Pp. 48. (For sale by Research Press, 611 Harrison Street, Kirksville, Missouri.)
Presents creative ideas for teachers of high-school bookkeeping.
290. KLEVORICK, SYDNEY. "A Small-Business Course for Vocational Schools," *Business Education World*, XXIX (November, 1948), 141-44.
Reviews a course offering started as an experiment in New York City's vocational schools.
291. LESSENBERRY, D. D. "The Seven Basic Techniques for Typewriting," *Balance Sheet*, XXX (October, 1948), 52-55.
An outline of basic techniques in typewriting skill that would be especially helpful to supervisors of instruction.
292. MILLIGAN, JACK. "Co-operative Training—A Challenge to Business Education," *Journal of Business Education*, XXIII (April, 1948), 24-26.
A critical analysis of work-experience programs that is of special interest to administrators.
293. *Physical Layout, Equipment, Supplies for Business Education*. Fifth Year-book. New York: Published jointly by the Eastern Business Teachers Association and the National Business Teachers Association, 1948. Pp. 344. (For sale by University Book Store, New York University.)
Contributions are presented in five parts: business-department planning, equipment, supplies, teaching aids, and recent developments.
294. POLISHOOK, WILLIAM M. *The Effectiveness of Teaching Business Arithmetic as a Separate Subject and as an Integrated Part of Junior Business Training*. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Department of Business Education, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1947. Pp. 92.
The report of a doctoral dissertation winning recent Delta Pi Epsilon research award.
295. SANDERS, FRANK F. "Survey of Office Duties and Employer Recommendations for Improved High School Training." Commercial Education Study Committee, Division of Curriculum Study, Pittsburgh Public Schools, 1948. Pp. 51 (mimeographed). (May be secured from the office of the supervisor of commercial education, Pittsburgh Public Schools, Pittsburgh 13, Pennsylvania.)
Presents a study made by the school people of Pittsburgh, with the co-operation of the Pittsburgh chapter of the National Office Management Association. Questionnaires were returned by 112 business firms.
296. SHIPLEY, CLIFFORD B. *A Handbook for Business Education in the Small High School*. Monograph 69. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 52.
Deals with problems of administering an effective program of business education in the small high school.
297. THOMPSON, JAMES M. "Training Better Office Workers," *Balance Sheet*, XXX (September, 1948), 7-9, 15.
Presents a review of what employers expect of office workers and makes suggestions for improving clerical office training.
298. TIDWELL, M. FRED. "The Psychological Aspects and Conflicting Practices in the Methodology of Typewriting," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XVI (March, 1948), 44-51, 64.
A study of instruction in typewriting focused on the psychological factors of learning to typewrite.

299. TONNE, HERBERT A. *Principles of Business Education*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1947. Pp. viii+568.
A revision of earlier book, *Business Education: Basic Principles and Trends*, dealing with the functions and place of business education in the secondary school.
300. TONNE, HERBERT A. "Training for Clerical Jobs," *Journal of Business Education*, XXIV (October, 1948), 22-24.
Suggestions for effective organization of clerical training courses.
301. TURILLE, STEPHEN J. (editor). *Bulletin No. 45 of the National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions*. Harrisonburg, Virginia: National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions, 1948. Pp. 84. (For sale by Research Press, 611 Harrison Street, Kirksville, Missouri.)
Includes seven contributions setting forth principles, objectives, materials, and teacher-training considerations related to basic or general business education.
302. *UBEA Forum*, II (January-May, 1948), 1-52; III (October-December, 1948), 1-52.
A service periodical published for members of the United Business Education Association. Presents eight special topic issues—office-machines training, general clerical training, basic business, distributive occupations, office standards, shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping and accounting—developed and edited by experts in these fields. Of significant value to teachers and administrators responsible for improving business education at the secondary level.
303. WALKER, A. L., and CRUMLEY, MARGUERITE. "Virginia State Plan for Vocational Office Training," and "Virginia Plans Layouts for Business Departments," *Balance Sheet*, XXIX (April and May, 1948), 351-57; 398-405.

Describes two excellent illustrations of state department service at its best.

304. WILHELMS, FRED T. "Research in Consumer Education," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XVI (March, 1948), 22-29, 35.
Reviews research to date and considers next steps suggested, as related to curricular organization, teacher education, "buy-manship," and money management.

MUSIC*

V. HOWARD TALLEY

University of Chicago

305. DELAUNAY, CHARLES. *New Hot Discography*. New York: Criterion, 1948. Pp. xviii+608.
Gives a list of recordings and performers from the beginning of jazz to the present day. The first part lists bands and performers, according to categories, in chronological order to 1930. The second part is an alphabetical listing of post-1930 jazz recordings and recording artists.
306. HANSON, HOWARD. "The Scope of the Music Education Program," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXIV (June, 1948), 7-8, 54-57.
Explains the difficulties which educators outside the field of music have (1) in understanding the disciplines peculiar to music alone and (2) in realizing the amount of time and effort needed to accomplish the mastery of these disciplines within the curriculum.
307. HUGHES, CHARLES W. *The Human Side of Music*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. xviii+342.
Shows the impact of an evolving civilization on the development of forms, styles, and mediums in occidental music and on

* See also Item 454 (Tyrrell) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1948, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 487 (Larson) in the November, 1948, number of the same journal.

the musicians involved. Aims to tell the music lover what to listen for.

308. KEITH, ALICE. "What's Happening to Music in the Public Schools?" *School and Society*, LXVII (January 17, 1948), 46-47.
Points to the appalling lack of training in the knowledge and appreciation of good music and illustrates this lack of training by some choice examples of musical illiteracy culled from papers by returned veterans attending the National Academy of Broadcasting in Washington, D.C.
309. MACDONALD, JOHN. "Music Projects Hold Junior-High Pupils' Interest," *Clearing House*, XXII (February, 1948), 365-66.
Describes how the adolescent's exploratory instincts were utilized in developing an interest in music by means of assigned individual projects related to music study in each particular grade.
310. MAURER, MAURER. "Music Is Not So Special," *Ohio Schools*, XXVI (March, 1948), 112-13, 132-33.
Argues against considering music as a subject unrelated to the other subjects in the school curriculum.
311. NEILSON, JAMES. "Are We Music Educators?" *Etude*, LXVI (August, 1948), 475, 510-11.
Points to many shortcomings in the professional practices of music educators in the field of instrumental music.
312. ROMAINE, WESTERVELT B. "The Teaching of Theory," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXIV (February, 1948), 38, 67.
Advocates that the teaching of music theory and of composition go hand in hand.
313. SCHUMAN, WILLIAM H. "On Teaching the Literature and Materials of Music," *Musical Quarterly*, XXXIV (April, 1948), 155-68.
Describes a revolution in curriculum making at the Juilliard School of Music. Traditional music theory is discarded in favor of a four-year program called "Literature and Materials of Music," in which music itself becomes the basis of study without the "aid" of textbooks on harmony, counterpoint, and form.
314. STRICKLING, GEORGE F. "So—You're Looking for Choral Records!" *Educational Music Magazine*, XXVII (January-February, 1948), 31, 50.
Furnishes a fine list of basic choral recordings suitable for use in the schools today to offset the overemphasis on instrumental music.
315. SUNDERMAN, LLOYD F. "Class Piano and Education Students," *Educational Music Magazine*, XXVII (March-April, 1948), 16-17, 38.
Tells how one teachers' college stimulated its prospective elementary-school teachers' interest in learning to play the piano by the class-piano approach.
316. TOCH, ERNST. *The Shaping Forces in Music*. New York: Criterion Music Corp., 1948. Pp. iv+246.
Contributes new ideas to the understanding and teaching of the elements of music: harmony, melody, counterpoint, and form. Designed for the music student, the aspiring composer, and the music lover.
317. TYRRELL, WILLIAM G. "Musical Recordings for American History: II. Since the Civil War," *Social Education*, XII (November, 1948), 309-13.
Lists available recordings of songs more or less intimately related to critical periods of United States history. Provides, in copious footnotes, bibliographies and record-catalogue numbers for the songs discussed in the article.

ART

ROBERT D. ERICKSON
University of Chicago

318. ANNEN, HELEN WANN. "An Approach to Volume Design," *School Arts*, XLVI (February, 1947), 184-87.

Presents fundamentals of work in three-dimensional form and a nonobjective approach to designing. Pictures accompanying the text discussions show three-dimensional arrangements in cut paper and abstract sculpture composed of wire, cord, and transparent plastic sheets, together with compositions expressing such concepts as proportion, balance, depth, opposition, dark and light values, and domination or emphasis.

319. BOGATAY, PAUL. "There's Madness in Method," *Design*, XLIX (June, 1948), 10, 26.

Discusses how basic principles related to free expression, coupled with controlled processes in ceramics, apply to other fields of the arts.

320. "Crafts for the Community," *Craft Horizons*, VIII (May, 1947), 12-15.

A symposium which is divided into three parts: "Talks on Crafts in the Rural Schools" by Mrs. Owen D. Young, "Benefit of a Craft School in a Rural Community" by J. Lynwood Smith, and "Art Workshop for Children" by Lillian B. Olinsey.

321. MOHOLY-NAGY, LÁSZLÓ. *Vision in Motion*. Chicago: P. Theobald, 1947. Pp. 372.

Presents an analysis of the educational problems of the contemporary scene and of the social and cultural problems of contemporary society.

322. "1948 Automobile Market," *Consumer Reports*, XIII (May, 1948), 197-213.

Discusses design in present-day automobiles as influenced by such factors as comfort, economy, safety, etc. Presents a comprehensive analysis of good and bad design features in our most popular cars.

323. REFREGIER, ANTON. *Natural Figure Drawing*. New York: Tudor Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 128.

Presents a creative personal approach to drawing the human figure. Through the use of suggested materials and techniques, drawings by old and contemporary mas-

ters, clothed and nude photographic models as a point of departure, this book attempts to "encourage the fullest possible development of a personal approach rather than a slavish imitation of someone else."

324. "Rubber Makes Casting Mold," *Popular Science*, CLIII (September, 1948), 129.

An ideal solution for difficult castings related to small sculptures.

325. SCHAEFER-SIMMERN, HENRY. *The Unfolding of Artistic Activity*. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1948. Pp. xiv+202.

Discusses experimental art-teaching with mental defectives, delinquents, refugees, and business and professional people. The work is based on the belief that artistic activity is natural and essential to all men.

326. "This Is the Plane That Outflies Sound," *Popular Science*, CLIII (August, 1948), 96-97.

One of the most advanced experiments in airplane design. Includes cross-sectional view and descriptive material.

327. "The Vanishing American," *House and Garden*, XCIV (August, 1948), 29-39.

Pictures the functionally designed modern home with mechanical equipment engineered to lighten housework.

328. WINSLOW, LEON L. "Art Education in Baltimore," *Design*, XLVIII (January, 1947), 3-5.

Discusses a well-organized and efficiently operating program for the teaching of art in a large city school system.

329. WINSLOW, LEON L. "Educational and Economic Facilities for Art," *Design*, XLVIII (April, 1947), 4-6.

Presents an interesting discussion of art in the public schools covering the following topics: "The Present Situation," "Proposed Improvements," "High School Art Major Courses," "High School Art Curriculum," "The Preparation of Art Teachers," "Physical Plan for a Complete Art Department," and "Conclusion."

330. ZIEGFELD, EDWIN. "The Art Educator—Curriculum and Teaching," *Educators Report on Art Education*, V (October, 1947), 4-7.

An extension of present concepts regarding the scope of art education as related to student needs and interests, co-operatively planned curriculums between teacher and students, and evaluations based on student, rather than adult, standards.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

D. K. BRACE

University of Texas

331. *Accident Facts, 1948 Edition*. Prepared by the Statistical Division. Chicago: National Safety Council, 1948. Pp. 96. Presents a detailed summary of accident statistics for 1947.

332. BRACE, DAVID K. *Health and Physical Education for Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1948. Pp. 392.

Presents administrative standards and instructional units for a one-year course of health education and instructional units for six years of physical education in junior and senior high schools. Units are planned around student proficiencies in progressive achievement standards involving pupil activity.

333. CHISHOLM, FRANCIS P. "A New Tool for Safety Education," *Safety Education*, XXVII (April, 1948), 9-11.

An interesting article on the application of the science of general semantics to prevention of accidents through better adaptation of reaction patterns to the meaning of situations.

334. DIMOCK, HEDLEY S., and OTHERS. *Administration of the Modern Camp*. New York: Association Press, 1948. Pp. viii+284.

Presents a comprehensive treatment of camp management and program.

335. DUGGAN, ANNE SCHLEY; SCHLOTTMANN, JEANETTE; and RUTLEDGE, ABBIE. *The Folk Dance Library*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1948.

A five-volume series on the folk dance, of which the separate volume titles are: *The Teaching of Folk Dance*, *Folk Dances of Scandinavia*, *Folk Dances of European Countries*, *Folk Dances of the British Isles*, and *Folk Dances of the United States and Mexico*.

336. EXTON, BESS. *Sex Education*. Washington: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1948. Pp. 6.

A revised bibliography of units, guides, books, and films on sex education.

337. FISHBEIN, MORRIS, and BURGESS, ERNEST W. (editors). *Successful Marriage*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. 548. Presents a compendium of the opinions of thirty-eight specialists on problems related to marriage.

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339. FLORIO, A. E. "Driver Training Demands Special Know-How," *Safety Education*, XXVII (May, 1948), 10-11. Presents a brief discussion of the qualifications necessary for the high-school teacher of driver education.

340. FORSYTHE, CHARLES E. *The Administration of High School Athletics*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948 (second edition). Pp. xviii+440.

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341. GROUT, RUTH E. *Health Teaching in Schools*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1948. Pp. viii+320.

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342. HOWORTH, BECKETT. "Walking and Climbing for Safety," *Safety Education*, XXVIII (November, 1948), 2-4.
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 344. LA SALLE, DOROTHY; COOPS, HELEN; SPECHT, BESS; and TURNAGE, HANNAH. "Fitting Health Instruction into the High School Schedule," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XIX (November, 1948), 594-95, 629-30.
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Presents a comprehensive picture of public recreation—its organization and its place in community life.
 346. MOCK, HARRY E.; MOCK, HARRY E., JR.; and MOCK, CHARLES J. "Head On!" *Safety Education*, XXVII (February, 1948), 6-8, 37.
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 347. MOREHOUSE, LAURENCE E., and MILLER, AUGUSTUS T., JR. *Physiology of Exercise*. St. Louis, Missouri: C. V. Mosby Co., 1948. Pp. 354.
A book covering the research by the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory.
 348. NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON FACILITIES FOR ATHLETICS, RECREATION, PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION. *A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education*. Chicago: Athletic Institute, Inc. (209 South State Street), 1947. Pp. 128.
A comprehensive and authoritative guide on school facilities for physical education and recreation. Presents sound basic principles, specifications, tables, and plans. This publication should be consulted by all persons interested in school construction.
 349. NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL. "Laboratory Glassware," *Safety Education*, XXVII (January, 1948), 16-21.
An excellent guide to the preparation and handling of glassware in school laboratories.
 350. NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL. "Small Craft," *Safety Education*, XXVII (September, 1948), 13-16.
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Presents a statement of the proficiencies expected of coaches, players, officials, and administrators in the development of sportsmanship.
 352. POHNDORF, RICHARD H. "Educational Sports Awards," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XIX (April, 1948), 258-59, 297-300.
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 353. POTTER, EDITH L. *Fundamentals of Human Reproduction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. xii + 232.
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354. RATHBONE, JOSEPHINE L.; BACON, FRANCIS L.; and KEENE, CHARLES H., M.D. *Health in Your Daily Living*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1948. Pp. xii+442+xxvi.
A textbook, accompanied by a separate workbook, on health instruction for high-school students. Stresses the importance of intelligent everyday living and the concept of total health.
355. RUGEN, MABEL E. "Better Health through Schools," *The Administration of Schools for Better Living*, pp. 48-62. Edited by Dan H. Cooper. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Presents recent projects and research.
356. SCHNEIDER, EDWARD C., and KARPOVICH, PETER V. *Physiology of Muscular Activity*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1948 (third edition). Pp. viii+346. An excellent reference for high-school courses in health and physiology.
357. SINCLAIR, CAROLINE. "Therapeutics in the Physical Education Program for Secondary Schools," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XIX (June, 1948), 397, 431-32.
Outlines objectives and standards for adapted physical education in secondary schools.
358. STRONG, JOANNA, and LEONARD, TOM B. (editors). *A Treasury of Laughs for Boys and Girls*. New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. x+192.
A compilation of comic recitations, puns, and other humor for young adolescents.
359. ZEIGLER, EARLE F. "Implications of the Study of Body Types for Physical Education," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XIX (April, 1948), 241-42, 294-97.
Holds that a study of body types will help the physical educator in the corrective, required, and elective phases of the program.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

ALVIN W. JOHNSON and FRANK H. YOST,
*Separation of Church and State in the
United States*. Minneapolis, Minnesota:
University of Minnesota Press, 1948.
Pp. 280. \$4.50.

The uneasy relationship of church and state is carefully portrayed in Johnson and Yost's *Separation of Church and State*, which is essentially a revision of Johnson's book, *The Legal Status of Church-State Relationship in the United States*, which was published in 1934.

Among the established principles of American government, the authors indicate that separation of church and state is a major contribution of this country to modern civilization. After indicating briefly the historical development of this principle, the book presents some of the modern areas of controversy in its still unsettled implementation. The increasing number of states requiring Bible-reading and the frequent litigation resulting from this requirement; the problem of programs of released time from public schools for sectarian religious instruction, recently brought to public attention by the Supreme Court decision; the question of public aid to sectarian schools through indirect means, such as transportation and free textbooks; the issues of the relation of the state to religion, for example, in Sunday legislation and in the religious aspects of freedom of speech and press—these are among the areas in which the application of the principle of separation of church and state is still unsettled.

The revisions from Johnson's earlier vol-

ume appear to be significant in indicating trends in the areas of controversy. In the revised edition, there is decreased emphasis on the question of Bible use in public schools and an increased concern for problems of aid to sectarian schools. The matter of the federal government's relationships to the church through the maintenance of sectarian schools in Indian reservations has not been considered.

The material for this study was selected from the state and national constitutions, statutes, and court decisions. Throughout their interpretation, the authors indicate vigorous concern for complete separation of church and state. This is consistent with their occupational affiliations, as Johnson is president of a Seventh Day Adventist college, and Yost is associate secretary of the Religious Liberty Association, which is closely related to that sect. So strong is the conviction of the Seventh Day Adventists in this connection that, at a national convention a few years ago, they resolved to oppose any bill permitting federal aid to sectarian schools and to reject any aid that might be granted to its own denominational schools. This action was taken despite the fact that the Seventh Day Adventists maintain the third largest system of parochial schools in the United States.

The authors mention only incidentally the influence that the question of aid to sectarian schools may have on the whole problem of federal aid to education—an issue of major educational significance. The reader might also wish that an attempt had been

made to identify the dynamics and forces which are acting to weaken or to modify the principle of complete separation of church and state. Nevertheless, the book presents a careful study of one of the areas of recurrent struggle between a principle and expediency. It is of sufficient value in identifying and presenting a contemporary problem that it warrants a careful reading, even by those persons who are familiar with the earlier editions.

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W. D. WALL, *The Adolescent Child*. London, England: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1948. Pp. x+206.

When one man, with the aid of experience and of whatever reading has interested him, sits down to write a comprehensive book, the product is likely to show certain shortcomings. The product may also gain in value if the writer enjoys his subject. *The Adolescent Child*, by W. D. Wall, has all the faults and virtues of such an undertaking.

This volume would seem to be an acceptable introduction to the subject of adolescence for beginning students and parents. For one thing, the writer's emphasis on common, observable behavior strikes a familiar chord. Two important criticisms might be made, however.

First, the major researches that are cited are rather naïve questionnaire studies of somewhat limited scope and of no great depth. There is present a curious mixture of fact, fancy, and speculation, with nothing to indicate to the reader which is which. A minor, but typical, instance is the statement that puberty occurs earlier in the tropics. What little scientific research has been done seems to refute this statement, but this research appears to be unknown to the author.

In general, there is a good deal of quoting of superficial writing, dating back twenty to fifty years, and little or no reference to many significant researches of the past decade, notably such American studies as those of the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of California and various others recently summarized and interpreted in Part I of the Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

The second criticism is that there seems to be a certain lack of perspective and insight in explaining the reasons for human behavior during the adolescent years. For example, a good interpretation of one kind of act may be followed by a speculation in which the very question seems to overlook the significant motives involved.

It would not be fair, however, to close on this note; for the author contributes an extremely important ingredient—a warm, interested, human feeling for his subject. This attitude is perhaps more important than the presentation of accurate facts and analyses alone because it quietly suggests that adolescents are human beings and that their actions are understandable if one makes the effort.

Similar books have been published and no doubt will be published in the future. Some are better, some worse. This book is no match for Blos or Zachry or even for the short passages in Travis and Baruch. It may, after all, be the victim of scientific advance; for one man alone cannot hope to contribute a consistently high-level survey of a subject which demands closely co-operating specialists to do it justice in all its parts. Hard work alone cannot replace the searching, stimulating cross-criticism and the check on personal biases that group study provides, even though one person may finally write up the results.

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- Film and Education*. A Symposium on the Role of the Film in the Field of Education. Edited by GODFREY M. ELLIOTT. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. xii+598. \$7.50.
- Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools*. Prepared by Division of Research and Guidance, with the assistance of Division of Elementary Education, Division of Trade and Industrial Education of the Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools. Los Angeles 28: California Test Bureau, 1948. Pp. xiv+158.
- HUNT, H. K. *Training through Latin*. Carlton, N. 3, Victoria, Australia: Published for the Australian Council for Educational Research by Melbourne University Press, 1948. Pp. viii+176.
- MCALLISTER, CHARLES E. *Inside the Campus: Mr. Citizen Looks at His Universities*. New York 10: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1948. Pp. 248+tables. \$5.00.
- PORTERFIELD, AUSTIN L., and TALBERT, ROBERT H., with the assistance of HERBERT R. MUNDHENKE. *Crime, Suicide, and Social Well-being in Your State and City*. Leo Potishman Foundation Publications in the Social Sciences. Fort Worth, Texas: Texas Christian University, 1948. Pp. viii+122. \$2.25.
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The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook. Edited by OSCAR KRISEN BUIROS. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1949. Pp. xiv+1048. \$12.50.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS
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- Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, n.d. Pp. x+176. \$0.25.
- HAWKINS, GEORGE E., and TATE, GLADYS. *Your Mathematics*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1948. Pp. 592.
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- Resource Education Materials: *Let's Save Soil with Sam and Sue*, pp. 28, \$0.30; *Pioneers of a New South*, pp. 28, \$0.30; *Better Land for Better Living*, pp. 28, \$0.30. Auburn, Alabama: Resource-Use Education Workshop, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, n.d.
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- DALE, EDGAR, and CHALL, JEANNE S. *A Formula for Predicting Readability*. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1948. Pp. 28. \$0.50.
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- setts: Harvard Graduate School of Education, n.d. Pp. 14.
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- MULVIHILL, DONALD F. *University Courses in Air Transportation*. Bureau of Business Research, Printed Series No. 4. University, Alabama: School of Commerce and Business Administration, University of Alabama, 1948. Pp. 36. \$0.50.
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- 1948 Fall Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies. Educational Records Bulletin No. 51. New York 19: Educational Records Bureau, 1949. Pp. xiv+72.
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"Adaptations of Classics and Famous Fiction (Incomplete List)" by VIRGINIA L. BURGESS and HOMER KEMPFFER. Pp. 4 (processed).

Adult Education References, No. 1—"Bibliography of Bibliographies on Adult Education" by VIRGINIA L. BURGESS and HOMER KEMPFFER. Pp. 2 (processed).

Adult Education References, No. 2—"Methods of Instruction for Illiterates" by VIRGINIA L. BURGESS and HOMER KEMPFFER. Pp. 4 (processed).

Bulletin No. 11, 1947—*Teaching as a Career* by BENJAMIN W. FRAZIER. Pp. ii+44.

Bulletin No. 11, 1948—*Education for Freedom: As Provided by State Laws* by WARD W. KEESECKER. Pp. viii+38. \$0.20.

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MISCELLANEOUS

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